The Nation.

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The Week.

The assumption that the Rate bill is a "non-partisan" measure was pretty rudely shaken in the Senate on April 4. Mr. Long rose as the spokesman of the recent Republican conference at the White House, only to be quizzed by Messrs. Bailey, Bacon, Aldrich, and Foraker. The Democratic Senators wanted to know why a bill assiduously represented as non-partisan was discussed and amended in secret committee of Republican Senators. Messrs. Foraker and Bacon stood on the point of Senatorial prerogative, questioning the propriety of this form of Presidential meddling with legislation. Now no Senator need be precisely shocked at the spectacle of a bill "steered" from the White House. Our more startling *ballons d'essai* are usually inflated, not at the legislative, but at the executive, end of Pennsylvania Avenue. Still, the recent conference at the White House was so specifically announced, and made such pretensions to authority, that it is natural, first, that all Senators should challenge its propriety, or, conceding that point, that Democratic Senators should resent being left out. Finally, the spectacle of the President's accredited spokesman under unfriendly cross-examination indicates the disintegration of the so-called Roosevelt party.

While there developed in the House some Democratic opposition to the National Quarantine bill, the passage of that measure is a real triumph of practical considerations over political theories. Every epidemic for the last forty years has revived the preëminently sensible sentiment that the guarding of our shores against disease is as properly a national function as their protection against enemies. Between times, the easy doctrine that the States might as well look after it for themselves would reassert itself. The real battle was won when most of the States, Southern as well as Northern, voluntarily turned over their quarantine stations to the national authorities, whose efficiency had been proved on so many past occasions. For one thing, we hope that the new law will prevent the unseemly wrangling between neighboring States, with the everlasting charges of local selfishness and laxity which have usually accompanied epidemics in this country, and even the threat of epidemics.

The proposal to reinstate the dismissed midshipmen is difficult to understand. When the hazing inquiry began, it was stated that the reappointment by act of Congress of three midshipmen who were dismissed for hazing in 1904 had done much to demoralize their fellow-students. It was taken by the whole body of cadets to mean that the Navy Department would be very slow to punish any one again for a practice its official representatives seemed to wink at. The midshipmen were thoroughly undeceived, and the hazing court-martial has dismissed or forced the resignation of a large number of them, while there are still thirty cases to be disposed of. Now, because Congress has passed a law making the punishment for hazing less than dismissal, both the Secretary of the Navy and the Naval Committees seem to be willing to put back those dismissed. This would be a grave mistake, and not only because it would leave the midshipman's mind in doubt as to the Department's actual attitude toward hazing. The offences committed bordered on crime; they included indecent acts as well as dishonest ones, and revealed, according to the Underwood Committee, a total failure to understand or respect the sanctity of the oath of service. Surely, for such wrongdoing there should be exemplary punishment. Moreover, the naval service ought not to have foisted upon it young men who are so obviously morally defective.

As a sign that the Democratic Club of this city is in earnest in its desire to become "nationalized"—that is, to dominate the party throughout the nation—the announcement is made that it will look with a friendly eye upon Bryan. This has been in the air for some days. Intimates of certain politico-financial magnates in this city have been whispering it around that those great men have about made up their minds condescendingly to "take Bryan." He is expected to drop his 16-to-1 nonsense, and then the course will be open to him to become the "idol" of the New York Democracy. These gentlemen seem to have forgotten, however, that Bryan's latest platform is Government ownership of railroads. Will he abandon that also to win their approval? Will he, in a word, be as anxious to "take" them as they are to take him? Those are questions which must be left to the future. What is perfectly plain in the present is that Mr. Bryan, while giving many evidences of growth and broadening in statesmanship, is essentially a radical. If he is again nominated for the Presidency, and especially if he is elected to that office, it will be because he is the choice of the workingmen and farmers and planters of the West and South, and not because he is patronized by rich Democrats in New York.

There are now at least nine generally recognized aspirants for the Republican Presidential nomination, and the greatest of these is unquestionably Fairbanks. With all the leisure of the Vice-Presidential office at his command, he has built, perfected, and extended the most workmanlike political machine, probably, that a candidate ever possessed two years and three months before the nominating convention. The prophecies of his enemies have regularly come to naught. He has blocked plans, he has carried off their spoils, and still the wrath of Heaven does not descend to consume him. In fact, nothing seems to touch him. All the boomers of other Presidential candidates use him as a standard of comparison. No one ever heard a Taft man, for instance, say that his candidate was gaining ground faster than Shaw, or Root, or Foraker. No; if he wants to make the ultimate claim, he says that Taft is outstripping Fairbanks, and the Shaw men, the Root men, and the Foraker men, in their most optimistic moods, can say no more for their standard-bearers. The flame of Fairbanks enthusiasm is as impossible to extinguish as the phosphorescence of a fish.

Although busy enough with the Rate bill, Senator Tillman has to find time for home politics as well. The Columbia *State*, whose editor, as will be remembered, was shot three years ago by Tillman's nephew, making up an impressive list of things which the senior Senator has *not* done for the welfare of South Carolina, observes that, "after going to the Senate, ... he evinced no interest in State affairs until the dispensary, involving, as he believed, his political future, was assailed." That assault, as we have noted from time to time, has been a formidable one. Not only have various counties voted out the institution locally, but one house of the Legislature passed a bill to abolish it completely. But the Senator has so far managed to save his "baby." It is rather interesting to see a campaign against Tillman based on his home record during those very years when, as all opinion agrees, he has grown so greatly in national stature.

The Massachusetts Legislature has under consideration an interesting "public opinion" bill. As presented by the Massachusetts Referendum League and amended, it provides that "on a written application signed by 10 per cent. of the registered voters of the commonwealth asking for the submission to the voters

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of any question of public policy for an expression of opinion, the Secretary of the Commonwealth shall place such question on the official ballot for the next State election." Other provisions are for county and city and town referendums. Not more than two questions, it is proposed, shall be submitted at one election, and in case an adverse vote is cast, the same question shall not be resubmitted for three years. That there is hope of getting such a measure through is indicated by the recent vote in the lower house of the State Legislature on a resolution to permit voters at State elections to express their preference for United States Senators. An adverse report had been made by the House committee on this question. On motion to adopt the resolution despite the report, 74 affirmative votes were cast to the 100 negative. Without the question of Lodge's or Crane's political fortunes to complicate the proposition, the Election Laws Committee hopes to make this further step towards securing for Massachusetts electors a chance to vote their "opinions," in addition to maintaining them at hearthstone and in hall.

However rapidly Socialistic doctrines may be progressing, this growth is not reflected in the vote of the Socialist party. The elections which have been held since the great Socialist effort of 1904 have in most cases shown losses, or, in a few, slight gains. In Milwaukee, where in 1904 the Socialists rose to the second place among parties, casting a considerably larger vote than the Democrats on the national ticket, last week's municipal election put them back in third place. Their strength fell from 17,028 in 1904 to 16,538. Of the seven States which elected one or more State officers last fall, six showed a smaller Socialistic vote than that cast for Debs in 1904. In Massachusetts the drop was only from 13,604 to 13,195, but in Michigan it was from 8,941 to 6,235, in Nebraska from 7,412 to 3,241, in Ohio from 36,260 to 17,795, in Pennsylvania from 21,863 to 10,390, and in Rhode Island from 956 to 364. Only in Maryland was there a gain, from 2,247 to 2,603. In New York city the Socialist Mayoralty vote also rose from 11,318 in 1903 to 11,817 in 1905. The normal "off-year" lessening of the vote will account for these changes only in part. Besides, theoretically, an organization like that of the Socialists, cemented by doctrines applicable to the affairs of the smallest municipality as well as those of the nation, full of militant zeal, dependent little on direct self-interest, but uncompromising in its opposition to other parties, ought to keep its vote more nearly intact in "off-years" than the great parties.

Municipal ownership but private operation seems to be the popular combination with voters this year. Other cities than Chicago have made this compromise between the radicals and the conservatives. In Kansas City, Mayor-elect Beardsley stands pledged to grant no more franchises for privately owned street railways or for privately owned gas works. He is not to be classed with the Dunne type of "ownership" advocate, however, for his backing in the campaign, in strong contrast to that of the Chicago apostle, came from the solid business men. The arguments that won for Beardsley were far from being "Socialistic"; it was pointed out that the companies operating the street-car lines and the gas works were making a great deal of money out of their grants, and that it would be good economy for the city to retain control of the franchises. In Seattle, where Mayor Moore was recently chosen on an issue of municipal ownership, it is now proposed to obtain for the city permanent control of certain of the main streets of the city. A street railway company has asked for franchises to extend its lines, but the Mayor proposes instead that the city develop a system of its own—build it anyway, and lease it to a private operating company if that be thought best. With voters, long-term franchises to private operating companies seem to be about the least popular form of municipal grant just now.

The ousting of John Alexander Dowie from all control, temporal and spiritual, of the various enterprises clustering about Zion City in Illinois, marks the end of a religious movement in some respects more noteworthy than any in this country since Joseph Smith received his revelations. In fact, such an effective combination of religious solemnities, miraculous healing, and business enterprise has had hardly any parallel. This unlucky year for Dowie happens to be the thirteenth since he opened his first small "tabernacle" near the World's Fair gates in Chicago. It is the eleventh from the "year of persecution," when the prophet was arrested more than a hundred times, spent, according to report, some $20,000 in fines and legal fees, but ended by defeating the ordinances directed against him, and won his final cases in the courts. It is about eight years since his establishment of Zion City and its industries. The bill of particulars telegraphed to Dowie by the coterie now in control names among the charges "extravagance, hypocrisy, misrepresentation, exaggeration, misuse of investments, tyranny, and injustice," as well as "polygamous teaching." These are grave and comprehensive enough, but the man's personality has simply triumphed in the past over all disaffection. About the legal status of the existing properties there is likely to be some dispute. When the Legislature once proposed to investigate the Zion bank, it was compelled to desist by proof that the institution was not properly a bank at all. The capital was subscribed by an unincorporated association. There was no limit to the stock; Dowie sold more whenever he needed more money. And the stock itself, on examination, proved to be merely Dowie's personal note, guaranteeing interest. It carried no right to vote or participation in the bank's management. Whether Zion will disappear entirely as a separate entity, or will become an ordinary stock concern after the precedent of the Oneida Community, is the chief question remaining.

It was inevitable that the Irish should find occasion to break with the Liberal Government. Mr. Redmond has just had a meeting of his followers to condemn the course of Mr. Bryce, Chief Secretary for Ireland. The point of condemnation seems ill chosen. It is a question of offices. There was much Irish muttering, upon the formation of the Ministry, over the retention of Sir Horace Plunkett in the Irish Agricultural Department. Mr. Bryce explained that, however, as a temporary arrangement. But now he has reappointed a score of land commissioners who were distasteful to the Irish and whose places they wanted. Hence their angry resolve that this will never do. But it is precisely in such a matter of permanent administrative service that Mr. Bryce is bound to be firm, and it is there that the Nationalists can least afford to make an issue. With the Government preparing to fulfil their hopes in the items of Irish education and a reasonable extension of local government, it seems a mistake to make a row about twenty land commissioners. The incident shows what the Irish would have done had they, as they hoped, held the balance of power in the Commons.

Mr. Birrell's Education bill, which passed first reading in the Commons on Monday, is evidently a valiant attempt to redeem the elementary schools from sectarian control. Under the Education act of 1903, something like 14,000 voluntary (mostly Church of England) schools were taken over by the nation. Salaries and all properly educational expenses were met out of the public funds. The managers of these Church schools merely agreed to provide and maintain the buildings, and to submit in pedagogical matters to the local educational authority. Financially, the act meant that thousands of schools that had been supported by private subscription were put upon the public funds. The evident favoritism of the procedure led to wholesale refusal to pay the school taxes, and some hundreds of convinced Dissenters were haled to court. The bill itself was called the "Bishops' bill,"

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which, curiously enough—in a nation that makes a bishop a high grade of public official—passed for a term of reproach. It was, then, a very difficult situation that Mr. Birrell had to meet. On the one hand is a multitude of Church schools and an army of their teachers in actual possession of a public subsidy—and naturally loath to give it up; on the other is a radical body of Nonconformists that will bitterly oppose any sort of religious teaching in State schools except that which pleases the Nonconformist conscience.

The bill drawn in view of these opposing interests is of a pretty drastic sort. The nation will no longer subsidize any denominational school. It will, when necessary or desirable, purchase the buildings of any voluntary school that is in the market. The national authority will not provide religious instruction, but will permit it to be given outside of school hours and free of cost to the funds. But no teacher shall be permitted to give any such religious instruction, nor shall any religious test be applied in the selection of teachers. In other words, the bill really provides for secularizing the schools, with a permissive clause by which parents in the various communities may supply such religious teachings as they desire. Since most of the voluntary schools were, before the Bishops' bill, in a struggling condition, the new act would mean a great diminution in their number. Both within and without the Liberal party such a consummation will be vigorously opposed. Many a Liberal member who is personally convinced of the expediency of the measure, will, should he vote for it, have a sorry time when he next faces his constituency. For Liberalism, however, the conflict is irrepressible. Some time or other British education must be managed according to educational values. If Mr. Birrell's bill becomes law, it should measurably hasten the process of secularizing the schools.

It is not usual with Mr. Asquith, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, to speak strongly on non-political matters, for he is a lawyer whose criticisms are apt to be somewhat cold. But he has just been scoring the London rich of the West End for their indifference to the London poor of the East End. The East London Church Fund supplies Christian workers to 200 parishes, yet, despite appeals, the total annual income is only $100,000, and most of this is made up of the coppers of the poor themselves. The rich, says Mr. Asquith, are not only indifferent, but are becoming more so, for their contributions to the Fund show a decrease almost year by year; and he boldly tells them that the facts of the case are "a scandal and a reproach." Yet it is only fair to bear in mind that the rich of London have innumerable calls made upon them, and that the response they make is by no means ungenerous. They contribute very large sums every year to the hospitals alone. Moreover, few cities are so fortunate as London in having people of rank and wealth who throw themselves with enthusiasm into the work of grappling with misery and sin. Lady Henry Somerset has devoted her life to combating the drink evil; "Father" Adderley, the son of a peer, lived for years in a humble lodging on about 25s. a week, and is now carrying on his social-missionary work in Birmingham; Lord Kinnaird labors unceasingly in similar ways, and there are hundreds of others. They, however, merely throw into relief the callous selfishness of the vast majority of the "smart set."

Nearly thirty years ago the Russian advance into Afghanistan was checked indirectly by the Treaty of Berlin. The recent Japanese success, combined with Lord Curzon's policy, now seems to have put Anglo-Russian relations in Central Asia beyond the possibility of immediate disturbance. In the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Rouire reviews the dealings of Afghanistan with the two rival European Powers. Afghanistan has become an armed state subordinate to British control, and recognized as such by both Russia and Persia. Lord Curzon in 1904 sent a mission under Mr. William Lane to strengthen the bonds between the new Amir and the Anglo-Indian Government. As the result of a treaty made at that time, Afghanistan can have no political relations with any foreign Power. Great Britain, in return, has agreed not to interfere in the domestic affairs of the border State. This arrangement, which guarantees the existence of Afghanistan as a "buffer" between Russia and India, has caused some dissatisfaction among English extremists who favored colonization in the Amir's country. But experience has shown that such settlements must be perilous so long as the country remains inhospitable to European civilization. All attempts made by Englishmen to gain even a peaceful footing there have met with disaster. The Cavagnari massacre led to Lord Roberts's famous expedition. But a railway has now been built from Peshawar to Dakka, and other changes in the means of transportation have been made to encourage commerce as well as, in case of necessity, to send Indian troops rapidly across the border. There is therefore no reason, thinks M. Rouire, why England should be jealous of Russian influence at Kabul, even as Russia does not apprehend a British encroachment upon Turkestan.

The Hungarian *modus vivendi* bears almost the look of a reconciliation. Magyarists of the stamp of Andrássy, Apponyi, and Kossuth are to serve in the Wekerle Cabinet. This compromise Government has agreed to vote temporary supplies and continue existing tariff and treaty relations in the Diet about to be elected. At the approaching session, a universal-suffrage bill will be passed, and, after the first election on that basis, the Ministry will be reconstituted, according to the parliamentary returns. It will be seen from this outline that the agreement between the Independence party and the Crown is really in the nature of a postponement. To avoid a Constitutional *impasse*, the Hungarian Nationalists consent to take office and to submit the more grievous disputes—the army and language questions—to a popular referendum. To have refrained from pushing an immediate controversy to revolutionary extremities is not necessarily a surrender. The actual compromise, then, indicates merely that the Independence party wishes a delay, and confidently awaits the verdict of liberalized elections. Until the reorganized Diet is in session, it will be impossible to learn whether or not Austro-Hungarian relations are permanently improved. Meantime, the willingness of the chiefs of the Independence party to accept office must pass at least for a notable courtesy, and a striking tribute to the persuasive influence of the venerable Emperor-King.

The Liberal trend of the Russian elections is unmistakable. If the Duma is allowed to make an uncensored utterance on national policy, it will unquestionably advocate a constitution and representative government. Avowed reaction will apparently have no weighty spokesmen; in fact, the reactionists who sit at St. Petersburg will, for the most part, be imposed by fraud upon ignorant districts. To measure the extent to which official interference may cripple the work of the Duma is difficult. It may fairly be assumed, however, that the bureaucratic cabal will hardly dare suspend the sittings or otherwise silence the Assembly. The most encouraging feature about the elections is the fact that a number of well-educated men of the lower classes are chosen. They, it is to be hoped, will be aware of the enormous difficulty of sudden and radical change in the Russian order, ready to accept partial reforms, and content to trust somewhat to time and gradual processes of education. From genuine coöperation between a party of this temper and a great manager like Count Witte much might be hoped. Whatever the outcome of the Duma, the tide has set away strongly from absolutism. No Czar who does not take this fact into account, is likely to enjoy for long the usufruct of the Empire.

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FORWARD AFRICA!

From illustrious Plato down to insistent Mr. Wells the Utopists have generally cast their visions of accomplished human destiny in terms of their own city. But just as the slow tide of historical evolution has long since destroyed the hope that the Acropolis might develop into the citadel of perfectionism, so it will as surely destroy the aspirations of Trafalgar Square to be the ovum from which mankind's jubilee is to spring. Indeed, if we gaze into the future, and to do so is markedly a fashion of this new century we move in, we can see not unclearly that nearly all the nations now in the van of progress are rapidly rearing obstacles that must throw them seriously back in what may still be called the struggle for the survival of the fittest. The last few years have produced many symptoms that Africa is not to become a white man's continent, and that the black race may eventually assert its independence, its equality, and, perhaps, in remote centuries, even its superiority. A remarkable article was published at the close of the Boer war by a Western scout who had been employed on Lord Roberts's staff. In this he concluded that, with the methods of warfare involved by the long-range, quick-firing rifle, it would not be many years before the African native, with his superior scouting and physical powers, would meet conscripted European armies with every advantage on his side. The defeat of the Italians by King Menelek's army, the ill success of the Germans against the Hottentots, the recent fighting in Natal, all tend to confirm this very plausible opinion.

It is in Natal that the question of Africa is just at the present beginning to take on a national, or racial, or anti-European aspect. The colonists, surrounded on every side by a black sea, cling strenuously to the dominant race idea—an idea that leads nearly inevitably to the scourge, to the gallows, to injustice, and to brutality. But a policy of repression, the policy of sixteenth-century Spain and nineteenth-century Russia, can be neither successful nor justified at the present day. Already the African has learned enough from the white missionary or from his American brother to perceive something of the realities of his position. And if the rule of the European in Central and Southern Africa is to be long maintained, it must be by the adoption of the best methods of colonization, such as those practised by England in Egypt and India. That such methods can be applied in colonies possessing self-government does not appear possible.

It is important to notice such trends as these just at the moment when the celebration at Tuskegee accentuates other and better facts. There black man and white have met with joy, regard, and hope in their hearts, confident that, while hands may be honestly clasped in a mutual effort towards what is better, the happy and right advance of civilization will continue in the path of peace and good will. This school was not the pioneer in the uplifting of the negro race in this country by means of industrial training. That honor belongs to Hampton and its noble founder, Gen. Armstrong. But the wonderful growth of the newer school is noteworthy because it represents a remarkable creative and constructive effort on the part of the colored people themselves. It was started by a colored man of little schooling, and was made world-famous by its great principal, Booker T. Washington. Its buildings are almost wholly the work of its own students, and its teachers to-day are colored people, while those at Hampton are nearly all white. True, most of Tuskegee's endowment was contributed by white friends; but this does not alter the fact that in every essential this school is the creation of colored people, with their own ideals and their own leaders. It was a favorite theory for decades, and still is in some quarters, that the negro is merely imitative and never constructive. The originality displayed in the development of Tuskegee ought, it seems to us, to put that fallacy to rest.

It is, of course, undeniable that Tuskegee has been singularly fortunate in its principal. Mr. Washington, as Mr. Choate has pointed out, is one of the four or five Americans whose names are widely known abroad. No other colored man of to-day has developed equal talents. And yet most of the small industrial schools which have sprung up all over the South as a result of the inspiration and success of Hampton and Tuskegee are managed by colored men and women of much promise and of unusual soundness of judgment. It is the double duty of these schools to produce leaders for the race among the teachers while training the children. But behind them all lies the colored people's thirst for knowledge. Were the desire to rise confined only to a few, Mr. Washington could never have built up such an institution as he has done. Granted that thousands upon thousands of negroes in the South are idle and worthless, there are hundreds of thousands of others whose zeal for the advancement of their children is in every way comparable to that of the bulk of the whites. The very obstacles and the persecution the negro has had to encounter have stimulated him to press on to overcome the conventional Southern feeling about him and his future. Surely a race which, starting with nothing, has accumulated within forty-three years of emancipation property roughly estimated at 450 millions of dollars, has a record to be proud of.

When the history of this movement is written, Mr. Washington's share in it will seem even greater than is believed to-day. He has not merely devoted himself with rare single-mindedness to the work in hand; he has steadfastly declined to have his attention drawn away from the industrial development of the race by those of his own people who would have him lead the campaign against their political wrongs. For Mr. Washington to approve of race discrimination or prejudice would, of course, be impossible. That he is opposed to disfranchisement, save on equal terms with the whites, he has plainly affirmed. But he has chosen to be the educational leader of his people, preaching the doctrine of industry and thrift as the great need of the hour. And in this he is right. To some one else must be assigned the political leadership, and the more the race grows in wealth and knowledge and efficiency, the greater and more effective will be its steadily swelling protest against the theory that honest Americans may be disfranchised merely because of color.

That so rare a leader as Mr. Washington should still, after a quarter-century, be begging for the necessary endowment for his work is the shade upon the recent celebration. No friend of his people wishes him to stop altogether his speaking tours. Wherever he goes, North, South, East, or West, he educates whites and blacks alike by his addresses, precisely as his 'Up from Slavery' has opened the eyes of hundreds of thousands who never before understood the work that Hampton, Tuskegee, and their kindred schools are trying to do, or the possibilities of the colored people. But to carry on a moral propaganda is one thing; to have to beg, year in, year out, for the means to keep the doors of the school open, is an oppressively onerous undertaking. Yet this is Mr. Washington's position, and even more that of Dr. H. B. Frissell, Hampton's devoted principal. The service of these men to the country cannot be estimated in dollars and cents. Their precious strength ought not to be spent in appealing for $25 here and $50 there.

Only $5,000,000 would give both these schools the endowment they need. It is but half the cost of the latest battleship upon which the country is asked to squander money. The one is a barbaric instrument of death and destruction, likely to be relegated to the scrap-heap any day, and certain to be within fifteen years; the two schools are doing most efficiently a splendid service to the whole country, and the more honest and industrious American citizens they turn out, the more they add to the wealth and prosperity and happiness of the nation, the nearer they bring the solution of our greatest national problem. The best white men of the South see this. The appeal to generous Americans

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should be irresistible. Mr. Carnegie has pointed the way by his recognition of Tuskegee. A modest citizen of Orange, A. J. Dotger, recently left, contingently, the splendid sum of $650,000, the bulk of his fortune, without having seen Tuskegee. Surely the comparatively small amount these two great Southern schools need must soon be forthcoming.

THE CHICAGO ELECTION.

The election of Tuesday week in Chicago was important both directly and indirectly, both locally and generally. When, on April 4, 1905, Mayor Dunne was elected, by more than 20,000 majority, upon the platform of "immediate" ownership of the street railways, the result was hailed as a sort of signal for a municipal-ownership movement throughout the United States. To a certain extent it was so. The Chicago example undoubtedly had much effect in New York. It helped shape our canvass of last November, and had much to do with bringing on the Hearst candidacy. Hence we are all interested in trying to read aright the lesson of the recent voting in Chicago.

In general, the electoral battle appears to have been nearly drawn. By a majority of less than 4,000, the city voted to approve the issue of $75,000,000 street railway certificates, for the purpose of buying in the property of the various companies as their franchises lapse. By an equally narrow majority, it was voted that the City Council "proceed without delay to secure the municipal ownership and operation of the street railways." This, of course, has no legal effect in itself; and, on the other hand, the popular vote in favor of municipal operation did not amount to the required three-fifths—it being about 120,000 for to 110,000 against. These figures are to be contrasted with Mayor Dunne's vote of 161,000 a year ago and the crushing majorities—nearly 100,000—by which the proposals were then carried to put a stop to private ownership of street railways. All told, the net result must be regarded as showing a chilling of the movement in Chicago. Mayor Dunne frankly admits his "disappointment." The Hearst papers practically confess that they have met a defeat. The Mayor announces that he will at once issue the $75,000,000 certificates to buy up the roads. It should be said, however, that the constitutionality of the law authorizing such securities is yet to be tested in the courts. In any case, "immediate" operation seems farther away than ever, though Mayor Dunne talks cheerfully of asking another referendum soon. The more sensible course would seem to be to lease the purchased roads to new companies under guarantees of an adequate return to the city treasury and an improved service.

One plain lesson of it all, which advocates of municipal ownership should lay to heart, is that steadiness of purpose and tenacity of conviction cannot be counted upon in a large electorate. Voters may seem to "rise as one man" in demanding something one year, only to have it discovered a twelvemonth later that they have ceased to care very much about it, or are off in full cry after something else. After such a supposed "conclusive demonstration of the popular will" as was offered in the Chicago election of 1905, there is an inevitable reaction. The falling off occurs at both ends. Conservatively minded voters begin to think of pulling up; the radicals impatiently desire to go further and faster. Two of Mayor Dunne's most ardent champions of a year ago—Clarence Darrow and young Joseph M. Patterson—left him disgustedly in the present canvass. Their stomachs craved the stronger meat of Socialism. Then there is always a great mass of rather colorless voters who go along enthusiastically with any popular movement, but who have no root in them, and get tired of the whole thing when difficulties arise or delays ensue. After a year of "immediate" municipal ownership leading no whither, they impatiently cry out, "Oh, don't bother us any more about it!"

Furthermore, it is impossible to escape political entanglements. No such issue as municipal ownership can long be kept single and whole. Other matters sprang up in the Chicago election to confuse the public mind. There was the high-license question. In their absorption with that, many voters forgot all about municipal ownership and operation. Then, too, the labor unions rose to inquire what there was in it for them. Their devotion to the principle of municipal ownership was strictly limited by their desire to advance their own interests thereby. Unless they could be assured that municipal employees would be permitted to organize, no municipal ownership for them. Mayor Dunne, with what appears to have been too much of a willingness to create a political machine in that way, agreed that the street-railway employees should be allowed, under city ownership, to organize—only, of course, they "must not strike." Leave that to them! We mention the matter here, however, merely to show what confusing issues were involved with municipal ownership in the Chicago election. Until American politics changes its spots, that sort of mixing of questions is sure to be with us.

Fickleness and confusion are, of course, an old political phenomenon in democracies, but they go ill with far-seeing business management. If Chicago is ready to invest $75,000,000 this year, but next year will be thinking only of how to get out of the enterprise altogether, the inevitable waste and loss are evident. Detailed administration of a great business requires a fixity of purpose and a steadfastness of popular attention which our politics, whether municipal or national, has never yet yielded. This fact is certainly one that the municipal owners must reckon with and meet, if they can. Their arguments are those of far-sighted business men; yet the political forces they have to work with are as unstable as water. However that may be, we think the other large cities of the country will be quite content to stand aside for a time and watch municipal ownership in the interesting experiment station at Chicago.

ABUSES OF CRIMINAL APPEAL.

In the last *Atlantic*, Mr. George W. Alger recurs to a theme, "Criminal Law Reform," upon which we have lately heard many warning voices of weight. The well-known writer on law, Professor Wigmore, has protested against the "exaltation of technicalities" in behalf of "the man who upon the record plainly appears to be the villain the jury have pronounced him to be." Secretary Taft and the President himself have spoken of this serious evil from the point of view of public men, while Judge Brewer has dwelt upon it as it appears to a member of the judiciary. To prevent absolutely the scandals and abuses which spring out of our right of unlimited appeal in criminal cases, Judge Brewer would have us adopt the English system, which admits of no appeal at all.

It happens, however, that the English system is at this moment on the point of being altered. A bill is now on its passage through Parliament to establish a Court of Criminal Appeal. The present denial of appeal is not absolute. If a judge trying a case thinks fit to reserve a point of law, it can be taken to the Court of Crown Cases Reserved. But this is purely at the option of the trial justice. There are also the infrequent instances of indirect appeal by *certiorari*, for the purpose of bringing up the case, both as to law and fact, in the King's Bench. But, as the Lord Chancellor declared, such cases are "very rare," and "no matter how bad a law may be that the judge laid down, there is at the present moment no means of obtaining redress in any court of appeal in this country." Resort may, of course, be had to the Home Secretary, who will grant a pardon if extreme injustice has been done; but his function is that of governmental clemency rather than judicial review. Several gross miscarriages of justice in recent years, notably that in the person of Adolf Beck, have roused a popular demand that the country cease to stand almost alone among civilized nations in having no court of criminal appeal. The contrast with the practice in civil suits is glaring. In any action involving as much as £100, ap-

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peal may be taken all the way to the House of Lords.

It must not be thought that the English are about to embark on that trackless sea of indefinite and technical appeal of which Mr. Alger describes the perils. It is a strictly limited procedure that is contemplated. A new court will be created, and the Home Secretary will have power to send to it cases which present intricate and puzzling features. Judicial machinery to weigh evidence, as well as to pronounce upon the law, will be provided, and then it will be expected to work promptly. Especial stress is laid upon speedy determination in murder cases. Said one law Lord: "The country would not permit that a man sentenced to death should be kept with the sentence hanging over him for a month or six weeks until the court of appeal had given judgment." What would he think of Patrick, arrested for murder in 1900, and under sentence of death since 1902, but still arguing appeals?

Lesser criminals, under our loose system of appeal and the growing fondness of the higher courts for reversing the lower on the barest technicalities, too easily go unwhipped of justice. Mr. Alger states the unpleasant fact that every one of the St. Louis boodlers whom Mr. Folk sent to jail has been released, all the convictions having been set aside by the Supreme Court of Missouri. In one of the worst cases, that of Faulkner, the higher court did not question that he had a record "reeking with venality," but reversed the lower court because of two trifling errors in applying the rules of evidence, and a nice "variance" "between the indictment and an instruction." It is this predilection of judges of appeal which gives to criminal lawyers their great opportunity to make a dragging farce of what should be a swift drama of justice. They try their worst cases, not with the idea of clearing their clients, but of trapping the trial justice. Their men are to be acquitted, if at all, not by a jury, but by the judges higher up. So they plan their case from the first for an appeal, and exert all their ingenuity for the purpose, not of showing the innocence of the accused, but of laying a good foundation for "going up." As Mr. Alger tersely puts it:

> "In many of the States a criminal trial means two things. It means not only the sifting of the evidence of guilt or innocence of an accused person—it means also a rigid schoolboy's examination of the trial judge on the law. If the accused be found guilty on sufficient evidence, but the judge has not passed a perfect examination, there must be a new trial."

Between the absence of criminal appeal in England and the very riot of it in this country, there must lie a practicable mean. It is for our bar and our judges to find it, and for our legislatures to make it effective. When the law's uncertainties are added to the law's delays, the burden becomes too great. There can be no doubt that our practice has gone too far in making every kind of legal refinement and quiddity turn out to the advantage of unquestioned criminals. Law reformers should not rest till they have done something to make justice among us more certain and more swift.

TEACHING LITERATURE IN COLLEGES.

An American university teacher of literature who sojourns at Paris is very likely to excite something between admiration and ridicule on the part of his French comrades. They marvel that an expounder of Greek, for example, has read only a small portion of the Iliad and Odyssey, though he be, perhaps, an acknowledged authority on Apollonius Rhodius. It strikes them as strange that a professor of Latin may be ignorant of Lucretius, but learned in Oscan and Umbrian morphology. Their amazement knows no bounds when they learn that an American professor of French has read only desultorily beyond the twelfth century, but is preparing a *magnum opus* on the sub-variety of the Wallon patois. They think it grotesque that a doctor in German literature should have an intimate acquaintance with the psalmist Notker and the Minnesänger, but know Lessing, Herder, and Heine only casually. From such instances the critical Gaul of the *Pays Latin* infers that American professors are preferably trained in subjects they are not to teach, and that governing boards gladly appoint professors to teach subjects they do not know.

Only on that theory can budding doctors whose university studies have been almost exclusively philological and extra-literary, be set to teach the literatures of classic and modern times. A very little observation of the incumbents of the best chairs of literature, ancient or modern, in this country will show that for this service philological training is regarded as indispensable, whereas the ability either to produce or to teach literature as such is regarded as wholly negligible. If a doctor emerges from the purlieus of Anglo-Saxon devotional translations, or of Middle English doggerel romance, with any capacity for forming or conveying general ideas, say, on Shaksperian drama or the poetry of Wordsworth, why, that is so much good luck; it is nowise nominated in his bond of appointment. Not only are hundreds of our graduate students untrained as regards literature; they are also expressly trained away from any fruitful thinking on that topic. Why is it that we are privately informed of each and every philologer in a chair of *belles-lettres* that his personal appreciation of literature is exquisite, but seldom get such a testimonial from his undergraduate classes? It is simply because men who for years have made a fetish of so-called scientific method distrust their own admirations, regard speculation of a comprehensive or humane sort as so much dilettanteism, and accordingly are ashamed to present to generous youth the kind of provender it most needs.

Research, falsely so called, and scientific method have tyrannized over our university education chiefly because they afford a ready road by which mediocrity may proceed to academic honors. From the truly difficult task of teaching what great literary movements mean in their social and æsthetic implications, our university professors have shrunk. It is easier to teach the Indo-European "ablaut rows"; as easy, in fact, as to teach the multiplication table. It is difficult for a modern intelligence to coordinate and interpret the enormous mass of reading required in genuine literary research; it is open to the merest gradgrind to tabulate a grammatical construction in a score of texts otherwise unnoted and unread. Because it is easy for men of a merely plodding sort to teach philology, and difficult to teach literature, literature is neglected. Because men of no training have taught literature with unballasted ecstasy and cheap phrase-making, men of good training fear to teach it at all.

With linguistics and the minutiæ of literary history, we have no quarrel. We hold in heartiest admiration the kind of scholarship represented in this country by Goodwin and Gildersleeve, by the late Francis J. Child and his successor, Professor Kittredge. The trouble is that studies for which only a few individuals have a real vocation are imposed upon all graduate students in lieu of the more discursive and humane training that should fit them for a life-work of teaching. Nobody can blame the exponents of the philological school for getting all the academic advantages they can for themselves and their pupils. Strong personality and singleness of aim will usually prevail over a more suave and dispersed activity. The philological syndicate is omnipotent in American education chiefly because its literary opponents have, as a class, been so weak. Blame lies, however, with the college authorities who have blindly accepted philological as the equivalent of literary training.

That literary study may be as severe and disciplinary as philology itself, has been learned in France, at least. There the University—the collective educational authority of the State—accepts no candidate in literature who has not some historical background and training. But the university curriculum of a professor of literature is, strange to say, literary. He devotes himself to the

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authors he is actually to teach in the college or lyceum. He has before him such models as Faguet, Lanson, and, until lately, Brunetière. He learns not merely the history of literature, but the art of clear and effective writing. By examination he qualifies for a position as a professor. If he desires the degree of Docteur ès Lettres, he gradually prepares, while he is teaching, a thesis that represents a personal predilection and is usually a thorough, well-considered, and readable contribution to literary history or criticism. Compare with this decent, orderly, and progressive course that of the average American university student of letters. He spends three or four years studying subjects that he will rarely teach, and which, in bulk, he will repudiate on the day of his liberation. He produces under stress, and merely to gain the needful hallmark of a Doctorate in Philosophy, an inchoate dissertation that preposterously passes for "a contribution to the sum of human knowledge." Then for the first time he really begins to study the literature which he is called upon to teach—in whose name he has devoted the best years of his youth to extra-literary pursuits.

It rests with real lovers of literature to combat this delusion. The serious teachers of literature might do worse than practise the "means of arriving" so successfully used in the philological camp. Above all, university presidents should go beneath "cathedral" nomenclature and learn what is said to be taught, what is best worth teaching, and what is actually taught in their universities. It may some day occur to this class of leaders that literature is not merely a label in four syllables that may be clapped on any philological back, but that it actually connotes a worthy and most useful department of study. From this point of view, Mr. Bliss Perry's appointment to a chair of literature at Harvard is welcome. It shows that wide reading, good judgment, ability to teach and inspire, and capacity to handle the English language with tact still count for something without the panache of original research of the "cold frame" order.

A TRIUMPH OF FREE TRADE OR OF SOCIALISM?

LONDON, March 22, 1906.

Recent debates in Parliament reveal two facts, none the less noteworthy because the existence of the first is denied by the Opposition, while the importance of the second is ignored by the Ministry.

First, the rout of the Unionists is due to the disastrous attack on "Free Trade," as that term is understood by ordinary Englishmen. Secondly, the crowds who rallied to the support of Free Trade were, to use the political slang of the day, "Free Fooders." Whether they were Free Traders in any wide sense of that term is dubious; they were assuredly not disciples of the old Manchester school. The ideas of Cobden and Bright, and of those Liberals who more or less shared their convictions, formed something like a coherent political creed. Peace and retrenchment were, in the eyes of the great Free Traders, as important as Free Trade itself. Every innovation or reform advocated by the Manchester school was, in truth, an expression of the individualism which taught that the prosperity of a country depended on the development of individual freedom and of individual energy, and that State intervention, which was at best a necessary evil, became an evil for which there was no necessity at all when State aid enfeebled self-help. No human being can believe that this is the spirit of the majority of those electors who support the present Government.

To see that this is so, let us fix our eyes upon the attitude of members of Parliament towards retrenchment. The Premier, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and other members of the Cabinet may wish to cut down the national expenditure; and every man, whatever his political sympathies, of course wishes to diminish the money spent on objects for which he has no desire. But this is a very different thing from the passion for economy which actuated a generation among whom Joseph Hume exerted acknowledged influence. Consider the language of a leader among the Labor party who can speak freely because he is out of office. Mr. Keir Hardie said

"that whilst he and the bulk of his colleagues believed in Free Trade, they could not find that Free Trade itself had solved the unemployed problem, had provided for the necessity of the aged poor, or had solved the social problem. He had, at the outset, entered a caveat against the time being given to this motion at all. He repeated that now with emphasis. They had wasted a day and a half of valuable time in discussing an issue which was a foregone conclusion; time which might have been profitably spent in redeeming some of those promises upon the strength of which the Government won so handsomely at the late election. Whilst he and his friends should vote against the amendment, it must be understood that in so doing they were not committing themselves to the theory that Free Trade was the issue upon which they won their election. It was an incident in the election campaign; but the great question upon which they won was the condition of the people, and the need for having a party in the House *which was tied neither to Free Trade nor to Protection, but was free to use its time in any way necessary to bring about social reform.*"

Let these words, and especially those I have underlined, be read with care. They are the language not of any Cobdenite or genuine Free Trader, but of a man who desires that neither Free Trade nor Protection should hinder the lavish expenditure of the nation's wealth on what he terms "social reform," or what opponents might describe as "socialistic revolution." Turn now to the words of Mr. Asquith. He is among the ablest and most respected of the Ministry. As Chancellor of the Exchequer he is in a special sense the guardian of the nation's purse. He, rightly enough, calls the attention of the House to its own love for expenditure, which really means the passion of the electors for schemes that involve heavy taxation.

"Let me point out," he said on the 14th of March, "to both sides of the House that the worst offenders in this matter are not the heads of the spending departments. Who are they? The members of the House of Commons. [Hear, hear.] Just let me ask the House to remember how it has been engaged since it came here just a month ago. As soon as we had disposed of the address, an honorable gentleman, I think sitting there [indicating the benches occupied by the Labor party] raised a demand for free postage for members of Parliament, a return to the old system of franking which was abolished because of the abuses it had led to and also its enormous cost. [Hear, hear.] The next day the House proceeded to pass, with unanimity, the second reading of a bill to provide free meals for all the underfed children in our elementary schools. [Hear, hear.] They followed that up, I think the next night or the next night but one, by recording, by an enormous majority, the necessity of throwing the burden of returning officers' expenses off the shoulders of members of Parliament and candidates upon the public. [Hear, hear.] And it finished up the week [laughter] by passing, with an enormous majority, a motion declaring the urgent necessity of voting out of public funds a stipend of not less than £300 a year to each one of its own members. [Laughter and cheers.] A very good week's work for a Parliament elected to promote retrenchment and economy. [Opposition cheers.]"

These words should be read and reread. Circumstances add to them untold significance. They are part of a speech in favor of founding a system, at some date unfixed, of old-age pensions provided at the expense of the nation. The desired system has not yet been thought out by any responsible statesman. No man ventures to assert with confidence what may be the expense it will entail. The estimates of experts vary from £10,000,000 to £13,000,000 or £26,000,000 a year. The resolution asserting the desirability of this innovation is voted by the House of Commons without opposition. These facts tell their own tale. The alleged Free Trade triumph is a protest against all taxes on food, but, when critically examined, looks far more like a victory of Socialism than of Cobdenism.

AN OBSERVER.

PRINTS AND DRAWINGS AT THE INTERNATIONAL.

LONDON, March, 1906.

To open in London an exhibition on a large scale that shall consist entirely of prints and drawings, to make it interesting and representative, to arrange it so it will be effective as well, is to achieve a triumph. This is what the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers has done. In the second section of its sixth exhibition, it has filled the New Gallery with the sort of work that in most London shows is thrust away in odd corners where no one would think of penetrating in search of it. Much of the sculpture remains as I have described it in the first section of the exhibition—M. Rodin's "Baiser," Constantin Meunier's and Mr. Bartlett's bronzes; and to these have been added an athlete and an Amazon in bronze by Franz Stuck, and examples of the work of Rosso, which certain people have raved about as the new impressionistic sculpture, and which the members of the International, whatever they may think of it, are quite willing to show, exhibition being the fairest test for experiments and for new departures. But in the three large rooms and the balcony, pictures have been exchanged for etchings, engravings, and lithographs, pastels, water-colors, and black-and-white drawings in every me-

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dium. It is astonishing how well these things, the most difficult of all to hang, have been spaced and grouped so as to produce a fine decorative effect. The endeavor has been to represent each exhibitor by a characteristic series, and to keep his work together—to make virtually a succession of "one-man shows"; and the various groups have been so well balanced and distributed that unity, not discord or confusion, is the result. When you come to look at the work itself, the discrimination and care with which it has been selected will seem no less astonishing.

Of course, within the limits of the New Gallery, the collection could not be as exhaustive as it is representative, and gaps might, no doubt, be pointed out. But, on the other hand, the work is as international as the name of the Society, and, moreover, gives a fair idea of what is best and most individual and independent in the art of each country represented. It is some years now since one began to notice in the Salons at Paris, especially the New Salon, the immensely interesting experiments that artists were making on metal and stone and wood. Much of the most successful achievement that has come out of this experimenting has a place in the French group, together with the studies and drawings of men who are the most distinguished artists and strongest draughtsmen now at work anywhere. The chief centre, naturally, is reserved for M. Rodin, the present president of the society. I am afraid the remarkable series of his drawings—genuine notes and memoranda—have bewildered the British public, who do not care for that sort of thing anyway, and can be induced to put up with it only when the notes and memoranda are faithful imitations of the Old Masters. M. Rodin, in recording his impressions of a pose, of movement, or of grouping, has evolved for himself a scheme of drawing that is extremely interesting, more like the Pompeiian frescoes or the Etruscan decorations as one sees them on the old vases; and the examples now at the International form a series of color harmonies of great beauty, and, therefore, quite unappreciated in England. They are not, indeed, appreciated at their true value even in France, where it has become the fashion for the critic to wait for what England, or America, or Germany may say before venturing upon an opinion of his own. With these drawings hang Rodin's etchings—portraits of Victor Hugo, Antonin Proust, Henri Becque, and "La Ronde"—all too well known to be described again, but important here as reminders of how carefully and with what finish—finish in the right sense—Rodin can draw.

Another Frenchman who is less experimentalist than master, is Degas; and the fans with the decorative arrangement of ballet dancers, the rare landscapes in pastel, are beautiful examples of his work. The vigorous draughtsmanship of Louis Legrand in his pastels and etchings, of Forain in his pen-and-chalk drawings, of Léandre in his studies, make the sham Old Masterly performances in the same mediums of certain Englishmen who are the mode of the moment—a mode which I hope is not to be imported into New York by way of the Metropolitan Museum—seem sadly and feebly amateurish; while you have only to look at the splendid richness of the water colors by Luigini, Latouche, and Rouault to admit how much wiser it is to develop a medium than to carry it no further than the first tentative essays by the earlier craftsmen. In England, just now, one sees far too many sham Girtins, sham Cozzenses, sham Cotmans. The wonder is that the Englishman really does not go back to his real Primitives and paint himself blue!

The larger part of the French collection is made up of prints—etchings by Legrand, Chahine; etchings in color by Villon, Cottet, Latouche; lithographs by Lautrec, Lunois, Léandre, Blanche, Belle Roche—prints, these, by men whose reputation has long been assured everywhere save in England. Fortunately, the International is too liberal to refuse the good work of a man who happens to be dead. Manet's etchings have been included, and a remarkable collection of the less well-known etchings, lithographs, and water colors of Camille Pissarro—sketches of the streets and squares of Paris and Rouen, of fields and meadows and peasants, notes of color, light, movement, which preserve all the first vividness and freshness of the impression.

The German section has been another and still more startling revelation to the English, not only because of the quality of the work, the sudden realization that even art is "made in Germany," and by artists never before heard of on this side the Channel, but because of the number of fine things by artists whose names have become too famous to be ignored by the most artless of people. Adolf Menzel was an honorary member of the Royal Academy, but it has been left to the International to give the first notable showing of his prints and drawings attempted in London since his death. The German museums have for long been collecting Menzels, and most museums object to lending their treasures to a private body. However, the National Gallery at Berlin was induced to contribute, a few private owners were generous, and all one side of the large room has been filled by his most characteristic etchings and lithographs, watercolors and drawings; marvellous studies (some of them portraits of German statesmen and generals) for his paintings, epoch-making illustrations, even several from the "Uniforms of the Army of Frederick the Great." The Society has managed, too, to make a little "one-man show" of Böcklin, who was an honorary member, and whose work is almost as difficult to get from the museums, that mostly own it, as Menzel's. A number of his chalk drawings have been lent, principally studies for "The Pest" and other pictures; very powerful, very personal, and, like the notes of Rodin, a curious contrast to the self-conscious so-called studies of the modern British critically labelled genius, seeking to be original by borrowing the methods of artists who worked years or centuries ago, under totally different conditions, in a totally different stage of development. The German prints are chiefly by Liebermann, Klinger, Otto Fischer, Otto Greiner, Käthe Kollvitz, one of the strongest women artists at work to-day; Emil Orlik, Otto Gampert. Where so much is good, it is impossible for me to speak of everything in detail. Besides, I want more especially, by explaining what the exhibition includes, to demonstrate what an innovation it is for the International to have organized it. I have seen many of the prints already in French, German, and Belgian shows. New to me, however, are the wood blocks printed in color by Emil Orlik, who, in his use of flat tints and simple color schemes, has learnt a great deal from the Japanese, while going to them for many of his motives. I was struck, too, with the excellent designs of the big, cheap colored lithographs, now published in Germany, mainly, I understand, to hang in school rooms: models of what such prints ought to be. In the midst of all these things, it was with something of a shock, but a shock of pleasure, that I came upon three huge water-colors by Van Bartels, who works in this medium much as if it were oil.

The American section has been quite as great a surprise for the Englishman who is ready to believe that when he has seen the work of American artists living in London, he has seen everything America can produce in the way of art. The gaps are not a few in this section, but what work has a place is representative. The wood engravings of Mr. Cole and Mr. Wolf prove that America, however practical, has still the leisure and, what is more, the sense to cultivate and appreciate an art considered over here too commercially out of date to be encouraged, and not even in France producing anything to surpass the work of these two men. There are also the etchings of Otto Backer, Charles Platt, Dr. S. MacLaughan, Joseph Pennell, and the dry points of Miss Mary Cassatt, as well as two of her delightful experiments in color-printing. Then there are water-colors—dramatic seas by Mr. Woodbury, Canadian types by Mr. Hallowell, arrangements of steam and smoke by Mr. Horton, sky-scrapers by Mr. Cooper. If I pass over these lightly, it is only because they are already known at home, and because, as I have said, where so much good work is exhibited, I can do no more than suggest the general character of the collection. The pastels of Mr. Fromuth and Mr. Muhrman, the charcoals of Mr. Mura, have been often seen before in London; but seldom, if ever, drawings for reproduction by Guérin, Brennan, and McCarter, Elizabeth Shippen Green, Jessie Wilcox Smith, Violet Oakley, Sarah Stillwell, Charlotte Harding. This is absolutely the first time, as well as I can remember, that American illustrations have been seen to such advantage in London. The selection is much better than it was in the case of the American pictures sent to the first section of the exhibition.

The Dutch exhibitors are overpowered by Bauer, whose etchings make an impressive group; among them those huge plates, Oriental in subject, that are in entire contradiction to the law of size laid down by Whistler, but a contradiction so splendid and vigorous as to be a law unto itself. The Belgians, in their turn, are overshadowed by Constantin Meunier. But to this there can be no objection, for in his drawings and water colors one can see how carefully and elaborately he studied the miners and laborers who were the models for his bronzes, still in the central court. It adds further to the interest of these drawings that they should appear in the

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same exhibition with the studies of Rodin. Nothing could well be more different than the way these two great sculptors have gone about their work, nothing more different than their notes and memoranda. Fernand Khnopff cannot be effaced even by Meunier, for this year he is once more the Khnopff who charmed by the tenderness of his sentiment and the beauty of his handling. He has only one drawing, a very large interior of a church, cool, gray, solemn, mysterious, with a mystery that is much more nobly conceived and rendered than the symbolism of Rops, a few of whose etchings are exhibited. From the Scandinavians there is little, but that little includes an almost, if not quite, complete collection of Zorn's etchings, and two of Thaulow's large color prints. It must be confessed that as these prints by Thaulow increase in popularity, they grow more commonplace. This year they have slight, if any, distinction in subject and composition, and they repeat the elaborate color scheme it is not the business of the printer to get out of an etched plate, or, for that matter, out of a plate or block of any kind.

The British section is the least interesting of all, and yet pains have been taken to select the best that British artists have accomplished in the various mediums classed under the division of "Graving." The British work looks sad and heavy and lifeless, without the brilliancy of the French, the determination of the German, the intelligence of the American. Color is dulled, experiment stifled, achievement lowered. There are exceptions, it is true. The color prints by Mr. Morley Fletcher and his pupil, Mr. Seaby, have the right feeling for the use of color and the due deference to the limitations of the wood block. They hang side by side with the color work of Orlik, and they can stand the test. The lithographs by Mr. Edmund J. Sullivan, with such ambitious motives as "The Awakening of Chaos," "Icarus," "Tithonus," are good, strong examples of the color and depth and variety the stone can be made to yield, and Mr. C. H. Shannon also has a fine lithograph. Mr. Brabazon's simple notes in water color and pastel are suggestive, though the tendency in England is to overrate them inordinately. They cannot compare, for instance, with the water colors of Mr. Mann Livens, who is still almost unknown, though his work is much more personal than Mr. Brabazon's far-away reechoes of Turner. Mr. Crawhall and Mr. Swann can draw animals better than almost any modern artist, but Mr. Crawhall has shown far stronger and more spirited designs than those by which he is now represented. Other exceptions are Sir Charles Holroyd's etchings, a drawing by Mr. Pryde, a big water color on silk by Mr. Conder, as dainty a decoration as you could house, and still others might be discovered. But the bulk of the British work is terribly pretentious and absolutely commonplace. It is just the other way in the foreign sections. There the commonplace is the exception. And, seeing this, you realize what a great work the Society, by keeping to its liberal international standard, has already accomplished in England; what an influence for good it is bound to exert on the art of the country if it can but continue in the way pointed out by its first president, Whistler, and hitherto more or less faithfully adhered to, despite opposition and ridicule and abuse. N. N.

Correspondence.

"NEW LIGHT ON AMERICAN HISTORY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Anent the communication under the above heading in the last issue of the *Nation*, permit me to supply, at least in part, the hiatus in the memory of the German professor. The statement he had in mind is contained in a work published in Cincinnati and Leipzig, in 1847, entitled 'Geschichte und Zustände der Deutschen in Amerika,' Franz Loeher author. In the chapter describing the growing preponderance of the English over the German-speaking population of Pennsylvania occurs the paragraph which the professor had in mind. It is as follows:

"We need, therefore, be no longer surprised that, also in politics, in the courts and other public deliberations, the English gradually obtained the leadership and introduced their language, at least in the principal assemblages. Nevertheless, this was not easy in Pennsylvania. When deciding whether the ruling (*herrschende*) language in the Legislature, in the courts and public documents of the State should be German, the votes were tied. One-half were cast for introducing the German as the legal language, which is of great significance when one reflects that it was intended to make a State German which had heretofore been English. The speaker of the Assembly, one Mühlenberg, by his vote gave the decision in favor of the English language."

The author omits mention of the date of the session when this vote is stated to have been taken, and it will require the aid of a student of early Pennsylvania history to verify or disprove the incident.

Max Lowenthal.

Rochester, N. Y., April 2, 1906.

OTHER WOODEN-HEADS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "The ligneous English" mind, says your correspondent "Nemus" (*Nation*, March 29). That some fragments of it have escaped across waters wider than the English Channel, take as evidence this clipping of editorial comment, fresh and accurate, from *Appletons' Booklover's Magazine* for the current month:

"The Balfour Government passed away at the end of last year and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was asked by King Edward to form a ministry. Thus the Unionist party in England, after having been in power *almost continuously for nineteen* years, has ceased to exist and its place is taken by *a protectionist organization.*"

Or is it only that particular variety of the wooden that is impenetrable by anything that touches the one subject—our most particular and peculiar protection?

X. Y.

Madison, Wis., April 2, 1906.

Notes.

A volume of symphonic verse, 'The Building of the Organ,' by Nathan Haskell Dole, is in the press of Moffat, Yard & Co.

Forthcoming from Macmillan Co. are A. C. Benson's 'Life of Walter Pater' and W. S. Harwood's 'The New Earth.'

The John C. Winston Co. will issue directly 'Panama: The Isthmus and the Canal,' by C. H. Forbes Lindsay.

Paul Elder & Co., San Francisco, have in in press 'The Garden Book of California,' by Belle Sumner Angier.

We are glad to learn that Signora J. W. Mario's 'Stansfeld-Mazzini' proves to be much more in a condition for publication than the lamented author was inclined to believe. It will, in fact, be given to the light by T. Fisher Unwin.

A work on 'Greek Theories of Elementary Cognition from Alcmæon to Aristotle,' by Prof. John I. Beare, is about to be published by the Oxford University Press, along with an essay on 'The Nature of Truth,' by H. H. Joachim.

Mr. H. C. Moffatt's 'Old Oxford Plate' (London: Archibald Constable & Co.) is intended to serve in some measure as a companion to Messrs. J. E. Foster and F. D. Atkinson's book on 'Old Cambridge Plate,' and to bring into notice a good many specimens practically unknown outside Oxford. It includes all the early ones and as many as the space allows of the finer or more curious seventeenth and eighteenth-century pieces. Over one hundred and thirty are described with their marks and measurements, with brief biographical notices of the donors, and in nearly every instance with an accompanying illustration in photogravure or collotype. The issue is to be limited to two hundred and fifty copies.

Part 4 of Prof. A. De Gubernatis's 'Dictionnaire International des Écrivains du Monde Latin' has just reached us, and carries the biographies from Henriques to Naccari. It pursues the methods and has the qualities described in our references to the earlier parts. It was Prof. De Gubernatis's intention to complete the work in four sections, but he has amassed so much more material than he expected that there will be six parts—about 1,500 pages—in all, which will be distributed to the original subscribers without additional cost. The editor is his own publisher, at Rome.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have brought out a popular (sixth) edition of their translation of the Baroness von Suttner's 'Die Waffen Nieder!'—'Ground Arms!' American readers will find some difficulty in understanding the effect produced by this tract in Europe, as in bringing about the Hague Tribunal, for which the authoress has lately received the Nobel Peace Prize of $40,000. Constructively it shows no literary genius, and its war pictures fall far short of those in Tolstoy's 'War and Peace.' But may its influence be prolonged!

Mr. Paul Fountain, author of 'The Eleven Eaglets of the West' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), evidently belongs to an impressionist school of literature. Like the painter who dashes a splash of color here and another there to produce an effect which it requires a special aptitude to appreciate, he introduces a little natural history, a little science, and a few incidents of travel. Thus he wafts us with dizzying speed over the eleven Rocky Mountain States and Territories which are the "Eleven Eaglets of the West." Fortunately we are spared a flying trip to distant Alaska, with its own

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bewildering distances. He starts us from Death Valley, without any premonitory warning as to where Death Valley is; jumps from Death Valley to San Francisco; tells of meeting the pioneer gold-digger in those early days when the Southern Pacific had not yet stretched its rails from end to end of California; gives us a glimpse of the Yosemite; then in a flash carries us, by undefined mountain trails, to within sight of Mount Shasta, a thousand miles to the north. Mr. Fountain has published other books of the same indescribable character, to which he refers us if we wish to repair the geographical lacunæ of this the last which he proposes to write. He tells in some detail of his ascent of Mount Shasta, and of his observation of active fumaroles on a ledge below the summit. Then he launches us into Oregon; and thus he crosses from State to State and Territory, landing us in Nevada near our starting-point, but leaving us generally in doubt whether the conditions he describes were those prevalent during his earlier or his later trip. Any one unfamiliar with that section of the continent would carry away from the perusal of his book a most confused impression of its geographical features, and of either its past or its present social and industrial conditions.

Eugene F. Ware, the well-known Kansas lawyer and politician, has collected and translated the various sections of Roman law relating to the use of water (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) Mr. Ware has arranged the matter by subjects, such as Rivers, Rain Water, Irrigation, Drip, etc., using a consecutive section numbering of his own throughout the volume, but giving a definite reference to his source in each case. The English of the translation sometimes lacks in clearness, but perhaps that is too much to ask of the language of law.

'Chatwit, the Man-talk Bird,' by Philip Verrill Mighels (Harpers), is documentary evidence that the shafts of Mr. Burroughs, reinforced from the White House armory, have not silenced the "new school" of nature writers, who avoid the long and tiresome process of acquainting themselves with the more primitive psychology of animal life by substituting therefor the more varied and interesting psychology of man. We may hope, however, that the recent discussion has established the relation of such literature to genuine natural history sufficiently to curtail its power for harm And yet we should hardly be willing to put the present volume in the hands of a child without impressing upon his mind emphatically the fact that real birds and animals never, *never* act as here represented. The book purports to tell the tale of a talking magpie, "whose loosened tongue and human inclinations gat wrath in the breasts of the West-land animals," and of course that wrath engendered ten thousand woes, and sent many souls of brave birds and animals across the Styx before their natural time.

For nearly fifty years a teacher of the subject, Dr. Austin Flint, the author of repeated treatises, now presents students and practising physicians with a newly written 'Handbook of Physiology' (Macmillan Co.), copiously illustrated in colors as well as in black and white. It neither weighs unsettled questions nor takes up the more recondite theses which require a high general education to comprehend, but it offers to daily workers, for their daily needs, a practical volume whose character the writer's well-established reputation guarantees.

An index of the revolution in the popular and the professional mind as to the curability of tuberculosis is Dr. F. R. Walters's 'Sanatoria for Consumptives' (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Dutton). Three hundred of its large octavo pages are practically a universal directory for such sufferers. Doubtless the intention to include all has not been realized; it hardly could be, in view of the rapidity with which sanatoria are springing up, and some of the information is meagre. But the patient who can reach a sanatorium at all, certainly may select here a place suited to his needs. Sixty pages discuss the general principles and methods which these institutions represent.

The French school system—primary, secondary, and superior—clearly and accurately described in a volume of 129 pages and 15 chapters, is a boon that many will welcome with gratitude. This book, by M. Gaston Rouvier, 'L'Enseignement Public en France au début du XXe Siècle,' with a preface by M. Louis Liard (Paris: Hachette & Cie.), is the result of a course of lectures delivered in French by the author at the summer session of the Upsala University in 1903. He very wisely added the more recent school legislation dealing with religious communities that was passed by the Combes Ministry in 1904. All the problems agitated with reference to the secondary-school system and the attempts to put it in harmony with modern needs are well and completely explained. As a merely descriptive book of existing conditions, this leaves very little to be desired, and ought to be in every pedagogical library.

Whoever has followed the recent reaction against chauvinism and militarism in France, with the counter reaction that accompanied it, cannot fail to find much to interest him in the two books by M. Gustave Hervé, 'Leur Patrie' and 'Instruction Civique' (Paris: Bibliographie Sociale; New York: Brentano). The author, who will be remembered as a professor dismissed from the French schools for anti-militarist propaganda and rejected from the Paris bar on the same ground, is now in the Clairvaux State prison, serving a four-years' sentence for having, with a score of other anti-patriots, signed a revolutionary appeal to the young conscripts. The theme that M. Hervé develops in 'Leur Patrie' with brilliant, if not always convincing, logic, is that the fatherland, with its ethnic historical or political ties, groups men of different and widely separate interests, and sets against each other the very men who, by the nature of their economic conditions, ought to stand together. He points out with a good deal of humor the absurdities and follies of the exalted patriots, and urges the Socialists of all countries to stand in time of war not by their country, but by their class. The boldness of M. Hervé's deductions, the absolute contempt that he shows for political expediency and compromise, the terror that his attitude has inspired in his party, give to this brilliant and paradoxical little book a very peculiar flavor. 'Instruction Civique,' written in a more objective spirit, aims at giving to French school children the elements of civics—colored with the author's peculiar ideas. It is a most readable text-book, reliable in its information, humorous in its argumentation. Teachers of French will find it a very useful book of reference on the institutions of present-day France.

The letter L comfortably fills from cover to cover the twelfth volume (sixth edition) of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Relatively speaking—for letters as well as books have their fate—it is not distinguished in our Lexikon's alphabet. The conspicuously great names are Lessing and Luther; and Leipzig, Liverpool, London, and Lyons are the chief cities among not a few charted plainly or in color—in the latter case always with an index of names. Leipzig, Leuthen, and Ligny furnish the great battlefields. Lhassa is brought up to date with a bibliography of the Younghusband expedition. Under *Landesaufnahme* there is a notable survey of Government cartography in the principal countries of the earth. Under *Literatur* a synchronous conspectus by tabulation is attempted; and here the United States is reduced to its lowest terms. It has no column to itself, but, tucked away under England in the period since 1830, we find: "American humorists: Aldrich, Bret Harte, Mark Twain." Shades of Holmes and Lowell at least! Lowell has a respectable article to himself in his alphabetic place in this volume. Other interesting rubrics are Ballooning, Lungs and the Diseases thereof, Lithography, and Life Insurance; but here again the editors are at fault, for, in the reference to American life insurance, there is not a word regarding the revelations of the past half year.

The Proceedings of the Scottish Antiquaries for 1904-1905 (vol. xxxix., 4th Series, vol. iii.) is a number of more than usual interest. It contains reports on no less than four sets of excavations, undertaken by the Society or by private persons, in different parts of Scotland, viz., on the excavations at Fethaland and Trowie Knowe, Shetland, by the Hon. John Abercromby, on the excavations of stone-circles in Kincardineshire and Aberdeenshire by Mr. Fred. R. Coles, of forts on the Poltalloch estate, Argyll, and of Rough Castle on the Antonine Vallum by Dr. Christison and Mr. Mungo Buchanan. The bulk of the other papers are descriptions of stone coffins and sculptured or inscribed stones (very interesting is Dr. Christison's account of the Kirkyard Monuments of the Lowlands), and of finds of prehistoric and Romano-British vessels and ornaments, burial urns, caldrons, coins, etc. "The Ornament of the Beaker Class of Pottery," by Mr. Abercromby, continued from volume xxxviii., is particularly suggestive. Of the remaining article we mention only the "Pigmies' Isle," by Mr. Mackenzie—the pigmies, it would seem, are none other than the fairies. The book has upwards of three hundred illustrations, and may be obtained from Neil & Co., Edinburgh.

The *Geographical Journal* for March opens with a preliminary report, by Mr. C. G. Seligmann, of the Daniels Ethnographical Expedition to British New Guinea. There is much interesting information as to the natives, their homes, manners of life, boats and totems, as well as a description of

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the regions visited. Major Gibbons, chief of a commission appointed to examine the Guas Ngishu plateau in East Africa, the region offered to the Zionists for a Jewish colony, describes it as a "white man's country" with a considerable agricultural and pastoral future. There is a large extent of forest land abounding in a giant cedar. In the discussion following the reading of the paper before the Royal Geographical Society, Sir Charles Eliot, former governor of the protectorate, characterized the plateau not only as a place where Europeans can live comfortably, but as a singularly beautiful and attractive country, and absolutely uninhabited. Among the other contents are an illustrated description of the rivers of Cape Colony, by Professor Schwarz of Grahamstown, and a summary of recent regulations in regard to teaching geography in the English schools.

In the March Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, Mr. Frank Weitenkampf presents grounds for believing the busts of Franklin attributed to Ceracchi to be not from life, but after a terra-cotta bust made by J. J. Caffieri in 1777. He quotes Mr. Charles Henry Hart as authority for the statement that Franklin and Ceracchi never came together. A medallion based on Caffieri appears to have been the parent of numerous engravings.

In a recent mention of the current annual report of the Hagerstown public library, we quoted the fact that this new avenue to enlightenment was eagerly resorted to not for the works having the bubble reputation of the hour, but for the best literature. A similar encouraging tale is told in the report of the public library of Passaic, N. J., a manufacturing town. The relatively low percentage of fiction circulated is explained "by our large patronage by foreigners, who, even after they have mastered the English language, are more anxious to read our literary masterpieces than the latest novel." The library has extended the use of its hall "to the Dante Literary Society for their lecture in Italian on Dante, by Mr. Biasi, and the Slavish societies for their lectures in Slavish, Bohemian, and Russian."

Dr. J. W. Mackail, Mr. Andrew Bradley's successor to the chair of poetry at Oxford, gave his Inaugural Address on March 10. Its title, 'The Progress of Poesy,' was suggested by that of Gray's famous ode, the structure and matter of which he discussed in his opening sentences. He led up in this way to the statement that the subject to be dealt with by the holder of his professorship is none other than the subject of that poem, the function and power of poetry, and the large lines of its progress from country to country and from age to age. He did not on this occasion attempt to give anything in the nature of a general sketch. To the new fields, Celtic, Scandinavian, Oriental, etc., which have been revealed to the poet in the last hundred and fifty years —fields whose treasures Gray was the first to suspect—he merely alluded in passing. He was content to illustrate the progress of poetry by reference to the history of the chair from the time of Trapp, the first professor (1708-1718), down to 1857, when the advent of Matthew Arnold marked the beginning of a new era. In the century and a half which followed its foundation, its province, as generally understood, was to discuss poetry as a grammatical or scholastic art (Trapp laid it down as an axiom that poetry can be and should be taught like grammar or rhetoric), or else to set forth the result of search among documents bearing on it. Since the days of Arnold, the aim of the lecturer has been to show it in one or other of its varied aspects as a function of life. He professes poetry, but he does not profess to teach it; to show how it is made, as was once thought possible, is as vain as the attempt to define its essence.

The study of Roman history suffers a considerable loss in the recent death of Mr. A. H. J. Greenidge, a number of whose books have been noticed in these columns during the past few years. Mr. Greenidge was an indefatigable student, and was manifesting, from book to book, a steady improvement in the art of communicating his knowledge to others. The first volume of his 'History of Rome during the Later Republic and the Early Principate' gave promise of a work of great value. The undertaking contemplated six volumes, but, from statements made in the preface, we assume that no great portion of the remainder was left in shape for publication.

—Miss Susan M. Kingsbury has made a study of the sources for the history of the Virginia Company of London, and the resulting publication must rank high in point of thoroughness and general form. Some 764 separate documents are listed and described in such a way that the location, nature, and place of publication may be easily determined. The writer made many discoveries of new documents in the English archives, and established the loss of many more by the receipts and memoranda of books and papers received or delivered in the various changes in the form of the ruling body. These gaps are more noticeable in the earlier years of the Company's existence; in the middle period the Manchester and Ferrar papers gave rich finds which supplement the invaluable manuscripts obtained by the Library of Congress from the Jefferson collection. Indeed, that Library now possesses, in original or in transcript, whatever early Virginia material in manuscript was found in the British Museum, the Privy Council Office, and the Bodleian and Magdalene College Libraries. In printed matter it is not so rich, having only three of eighteen documents issued by the Company after 1616. The Smyth of Nibley papers in the New York Public Library are another invaluable source of information, and that library also has the transcripts made by Brown for his 'Genesis.' But, after the careful examination of the field by Miss Kingsbury, it must be concluded that there is a fair chance of finding in some of the great collections in England the missing books and papers of the Company, and in this work the activity of the Historical Manuscript Commission is proving its value. As the Virginia Company did not differ materially from other companies formed for trade and colonization, its records will serve to explain the meagre remaining records of all similar bodies. Profit was the first object of the adventurers, and the establishment of a settlement was incidental. The beginnings of a settlement having been made, regulation ripened into government. As the author states: "Every phase of colonial development, from the mixed system which existed under the patent of 1606 to the chartered proprietary company after 1609 and the royal province after 1624, is here illustrated."

—The fourth volume of Mr. Worthington C. Ford's edition of the 'Journals of the Continental Congress' (Government Printing Office) covers the period from January 1 to June 4, 1776. An examination of the four hundred pages of record shows how rapidly the business of Congress was expanding, and how detailed and varied were the affairs with which that body undertook to deal. Even the concurrent action of the several colonies, though tending to circumscribe the field of Congressional action, had not yet diminished greatly the labors of the numerous committees through which Congress mainly did its work. One notes, in the present volume, the continued efforts to obtain supplies of gunpowder, saltpetre, and general military necessities; the skilful and cautious management of the Indians; and the strenuous attempts to provide a stable currency. Large space, naturally, is given to military affairs, especially army organization and recruiting, the treatment of prisoners of war, the defences of New York, and relations with Canada. The suggestion to the assemblies that Loyalists be disarmed and kept under surveillance further aggravated the unhappy lot of the many who still sympathized with Great Britain. Of new matters, the most significant are the numerous regulations regarding privateers and their prizes; the establishment of a "treasury office of accounts," the precursor of the later Treasury Department; resolutions for the regulation of trade and the encouragement by the colonies of domestic manufactures; and directions for the sale of tea then in the country or subsequently obtained through prizes. The settlers in the Wyoming country, driven to outbreak by the conflicting claims of Pennsylvania and Connecticut to their allegiance and their lands, are urged to "cultivate harmony," and to "consider themselves as jointly interested in the event of the American cause." The resolution of May 10, recommending the assemblies and conventions of the several colonies "to adopt such government as shall, in the opinion of the representatives of the people, best conduce to the happiness and safety of their constituents in particular, and America in general," with John Adams's preamble, of five days later, declaring that "it is necessary that the exercise of every kind of authority under the said crown should be totally suppressed," presaged the independence soon to be declared. Mr. Ford's additions and notes continue to shed light on nearly every page of the record, and we can only repeat the praise which we have given to the previous volumes of this admirable edition.

—The fourth volume of Mr. Poultney Bigelow's 'History of the German Struggle for Liberty' (Harper & Bros.) bears the subtitle, "1848." It deals fully, however, with but two phases of the German movement of that interesting year—the revolutions in Munich and in Berlin. Some of the other events of 1848 were anticipated in the third volume of this history; others are postponed to a forthcoming fifth volume; and the present volume harks back four years to describe the Silesian famine, twenty-

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three years to sketch the reign of Louis I. of Bavaria, and ninety-three years to illustrate Jesuit ethics by citations from Liguori. This disregard of chronology is a necessary result of the author's episodical method. Another result is a sacrifice of historical perspective: occurrences are treated rather in accordance with their picturesqueness or with the degree of attention which they excited at the time than with their permanent significance. Add to this the author's interest in striking personalities, and the result is an allotment of space singularly disproportionate to the importance of the persons and events described. Lola Montez holds the centre of the stage through two chapters; to Carl Marx are given three or four pages in a chapter on Socialism, which bears the forgotten name of Weitling. The inconclusive collisions between soldiers and citizens in Berlin, March 13-22, and the vacillations of the pusillanimous Frederick William IV. fill more than a hundred pages, a full third of the book; while the National Parliament at Frankfort is described in five pages, and what is said of it is concealed under the chapter-heading "Robert Blum."

—Mr. Bigelow's attitude is essentially that of the German revolutionists of the time; his only criticism upon them is that they were too tame. It is true, however, as he urges, that the history of 1848 has been rewritten by the German historians of the past thirty years under the influence of the events of 1864-1870; that the extent to which the unsuccessful revolution from below prepared the way for the successful revolution from above has not been recognized; and that Prussian writers in particular are inclined to treat the attitude of the German people in 1848 as a temporary aberration of the national mind, which should be forgotten as soon and as completely as possible. For this reason it is useful to have the other view of the period—the contemporary Liberal view—set forth afresh; and this Mr. Bigelow has done on the basis of wide, if somewhat desultory, reading and patient, if not always judiciously directed, research. His episodical method, his interest in the picturesque, and his practice of exhibiting tendencies and explaining events through the study of more or less typical persons, have at least the advantage of making his books readable. In noting the appearance of volume iii. we complained of the lack of an index; it should therefore be stated that the first two volumes were indexed, and that we have now an index to volumes iii. and iv.

—Dr. Roland G. Usher has edited for the Royal Historical Society a useful and meritorious volume which he entitles "The Presbyterian Movement in the Reign of Queen Elizabeth.' This study is made to centre around the classical movement as illustrated by a typical record, the minute book of the Dedham Classis. For an explanation of technical terms we are taken back to the 'Book of Discipline,' wherein, shortly after 1570, Cartwright and Travers advanced their ideas regarding the true form of church government. Here the classis is a group of ministers brought together to discuss parochial questions in which all have an interest. For every twelve parishes there is a classis. Next higher in the scale of ecclesiastical gatherings is the provincial synod, whose members are drawn from the ministers and elders of twenty-four classes. Delegates, in turn, from these synods constitute the national assembly. The causes which account for the failure of Presbyterianism in England are discussed lucidly by Dr. Usher in his introduction. Considered as a party, the essential weakness of Cartwright's followers was that "they attempted to construct a system legally within one alien to it"—namely, within the national church itself. The bishops would have none of them, and, save for the ultimate secessionists, Presbyterianism seems to have been a preference rather than a deep conviction with those who entered into the classes. The minute book of the Dedham Classis occupies about fifty octavo pages, and is simply a recital of the leading topics that came up for discussion among the members of this small religious group. Though bald in the manner of its entries, the book shows perhaps more intimately than any other writing now extant the nature of the subjects which English Calvinists were discussing in the days just preceding Babington's Conspiracy and the Armada. Dr. Usher renders a further service by reprinting, with adequate comment, the essential portions of Bancroft's 'Dangerous Positions.' This tract and the minute-book of the Dedham Classis mean much more when taken together than when studied in detachment; for the minute-book affords testimony to Bancroft's substantial accuracy, while 'Dangerous Positions' contains general statements which enable us to see what the Dedham Presbyterians, and others concerned in the classical movement, were really aiming at. Dr. Usher at the close of his introduction enumerates a few of the more obvious results to be associated with Presbyterian propaganda in England. Among these was a reinforcement of Low Church principles when the evangelical party took form, and also an indirect reinforcement of the political theories "which blossomed forth in the English Commonwealth."

—During the year 1904-05 the work of the Egypt Exploration Fund was carried on in two places, at Deir el-Bahari and on the peninsula of Sinai. At the former place M. Naville continued his laborious task of excavating the temple of Mentuhotep III., laying bare the ramp, the southern colonnade, and the great central platform. This last structure was apparently not the base of an actual pyramid, and soundings have failed to reveal any tomb within its area. Around it, however, several tombs of priestesses and princesses were disclosed, one of the latter adorned with quite remarkable sculptured reliefs, representing the life of Princess Kauit in the lower world. The work at Deir el-Bahari is not yet completed. The expedition on the Sinaitic peninsula was in charge of Mr. Petrie, whose first visit was to the ancient turquoise mines of Maghara, whence he reports that the modern mining company which worked the old site in 1901, has utterly destroyed twenty-four of the ancient inscriptions before noted at that place, and has injured six others, leaving only eleven intact. These have now been removed to the Cairo museum. A recognition of distinctly Ethiopian characteristics in a portrait of Sanekht, the first king of the third dynasty, leads Mr. Petrie to surmise that the second dynasty may have been overthrown by an Ethiopian invasion. At Serabit el-Khâdem Mr. Petrie completely cleared the temple and its surroundings, finding many new inscriptions, and copying others completely for the first time. One piece of sculpture was discovered which is ranked by the explorer as not only of great historic interest, but among the best specimens of Egyptian art. This is a head of Queen Thyi, with her name on the front of her crown. It is well figured in the Fund's 'Archæological Report,' just issued. The existence of lavers evidently for ceremonial purification, of altars for incense, and of an immense mass of ashes before the sacred cave, apparently the débris from burned offerings, points to Semitic ritual in this place. A similar indication of Semitic influence is found in the sacred stones, or bethels, "on every high hill." Mr. Petrie will continue his investigation of Semitic relations in early Egyptian history by work the present year in the eastern side of the Delta, under the Egyptian Research Account. The results of the year's work at Deir el-Bahari will be published in the fifth memoir of the Fund on that subject, while Mr. Petrie's investigations will appear in an atlas of plans and inscriptions, with translations, published by the Fund, and in a more popular book of narrative and description, accompanied by 160 photographs, which Mr. Murray is to issue.

—The campaign of Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt, for the Græco-Roman Branch, on their old site of Oxyrhynchus was more richly productive of papyri than that of last year, though the pieces were for the most part of the first four centuries of the present era, and included fewer theological and classical fragments than were found in, for example, 1903. Among the Hibeh papyri, which will be published in June, are a number of marked interest, such as parts of perhaps the "Tyro" of Sophocles, the "Oineus" of Euripides, a gnomic poem of Epicharmus, the play of Philemon on which Plautus based his "Aulularia," with sixty-eight consecutive verses probably from Menander, several portions of Lysias against Theozotides, previously known by title only, fragments of Euripides's "Alcestis," "Iphigenia in Tauris" and "Electra," fifteen or sixteen centuries earlier than the mediæval MSS., and three hundred lines from the treatise on rhetoric now generally assigned to Anaximenes. Other Homeric fragments are said to add new weight to the contention of the editors concerning the Alexandrian origin of the Homeric vulgate. Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt return to Oxyrhynchus this year for the last time, but the immediate continuance of excavations beyond this season under the auspices of this branch of the fund is said to be doubtful, on account of the falling off of subscriptions.

VERRALL'S EURIPIDES.

Four Plays of Euripides. By A. W. Verrall. Cambridge (Eng.): The University Press; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1905. Pp. 288.

It is eleven years since Dr. Verrall published his 'Euripides the Rationalist,' a work that endeavored to account for the

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admiration of the Greeks and Romans for his plays as well as for the modern tendency to criticise them or defend them as one defends what the majority think open to criticism. How, in fact, was one to get round Mr. Swinburne's remark that Euripides was a botcher? Was it to see a botcher that Philemon, the writer of comedy, declared that he would hang himself, if only he could be sure that death would bring him face to face with the tragic poet? Mr. Verrall's solution of the problem is well known. Where Euripides introduces the gods or divine intervention, as in the "Alcestis" or "Ion," it is with the express purpose, perfectly intelligible to all his educated admirers, of discrediting the deities, of making them ridiculous or ineffective, of conveying by constant innuendo that they were quite unnecessary to the story. This, then, was what delighted antiquity; and if we want to appreciate the "Alcestis," we must not swallow it whole like Balaustion in Browning's poems; we must look out for subtleties, innuendo, thrusts at theology of which she never dreamed. Most readers of Euripides have accepted the grain of truth in this book, which, like all works of the kind, assumes, and, assuming, thinks to prove, far too much. We refer to it here because no one can appreciate the second set of essays who has not read the first.

The new volume is written with the acuteness and scholarship, the excessive ingenuity, the sensational manner of the old. The first essay is on the "Andromache," "A Greek Borgia." The late Sir Richard Jebb said of the "Andromache," only last year, that it was "a poor play," and the Alexandrian "argument" or abstract which called it "one of the seconds" had hitherto passed unchallenged. But Dr. Verrall interprets the Alexandrian comment very differently. It meant that the play was not second-rate, but second, a sequel, which we, who have not the preceding drama, must from mere ignorance consider formless and obscure. Dr. Verrall proceeds to construct a complete chain of evidence out of the "sequel" itself, evidence too long and complicated to be repeated here. We can only say that, read with his eyes, the existing play does indeed call for a predecessor and that explanatory prologue which he assumes to have been lost, and that if the Athenians could follow intelligently in a single performance in the open air the dialogue of Orestes and Hermione as he interprets it, they were riper than ourselves for grasping at sight all the complexities of psychology and social philosophy in the modern drama.

The treatment of another inferior play, the "Helen," "Euripides's Apology," is the most drastic of all Dr. Verrall's surgical operations on the Greek drama, worthy of the heroic mood in which, long ago, he cut out the choruses of the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus and put in scenes with conspirators. The "Helen" is a weak play, based on a situation which might be effective in a lyrical poem, as Stesichorus made it effective in his famous palinode, but on the stage could only seem absurd. Menelaus has fought for ten years to recover Helen, has wandered with her, as he thinks, for another seven after Troy's fall, arrives in Egypt with her, and, when he lands, is confronted with the real woman at last, who tells him that those seventeen years he has pursued and held a phantom. Her strategy for their joint escape closely resembles the devices of Iphigenia in the "Iphigenia in Tauris." "We shall see more in the play if we know what to look for," says Dr. Verrall.

This is a bare outline of what he sees: The "Helen" is a parody of the "Iphigenia in Tauris" in particular, and the methods of fifth-century drama as a whole. It is no more meant to be taken seriously than "How He Lied to Her Husband," the antidote to "Candida." It was written not for the Dionysia in the first place, but for private performance at a domestic feast of the Thesmophoria held on the island Macris (now Macronisi), also called Helene, on the east coast of Attica, which has for centuries been inhabited only in the summer and by herdsmen. Even as Milton composed "Comus" for the noble owner of Ludlow Castle, did Euripides write the "Helen" for the family of the respectable apothecary Proteas, who lived on Macris, and especially to do honor to his daughter Eido, whom he put in the play as Theonoe, daughter of the King of Egypt. Proteas himself was dead "these ten years," as is proved, says Dr. Verrall, by the reference in Aristophanes, "Thesmophoriazousae," 850 ff. All this, it should be remembered, is constructed by Dr. Verrall directly out of the play. The idea of private performances of the dramas that afterwards appeared at the Dionysia is all his own, and there is not a single passage in Greek literature to support the theory. But when one can manufacture one's own evidence, what need of scholiasts? He actually grows sentimental over this creature of his own imagination, the apothecary's daughter, as a woman "of intelligence and humor," who "deserves not to be altogether forgotten," till he almost persuades the reader to forget that she never existed, and that men have read the "Helen" for centuries and will read, without detecting even the shadow of such a personality. Dr. Verrall devotes nearly one hundred pages of argument and explanation to a theory which we must dismiss in a paragraph; and this is to do injustice to a most ingenious and searching study of the play, for Dr. Verrall is a thorough scholar, and no one can read him without profit. It is his method, not his knowledge, that is at fault. When, in 1897, Mr. S. Butler wrote his book to prove that a young woman wrote the Odyssey, he met with ridicule because he was not a competent scholar. Dr. Verrall's theories are no less far-fetched than Mr. Butler's, but his erudition is beyond question.

The "Heracles," "A Soul's Tragedy," has always been regarded as in some respects parallel with the "Ajax" of Sophocles. In both the hero is visited with madness, is led by it to furious slaughter, and, on the recovery of reason, can see no escape from the situation but death. Dr. Verrall gives a new interpretation of the character of Heracles as envisaged by Euripides. He is a megalomaniac, always on the verge of some violent outbreak, constantly under the illusion that he has performed marvellous exploits. For instance, Theseus and he have visited some cave or mine together and were perhaps imprisoned with the victims of a fatal accident. Theseus, as he tells us, was utterly unmanned. Heracles retained his courage and strength, and found an escape for both. "Euripides," says Dr. Verrall, "gives neither these details nor any, but indicates plainly to educated spectators or readers of his day that it is some incident of this kind, some natural incident, something like what was figured in this connection by rationalistic writers, that Theseus and his Heracles jointly remember." It is really astonishing that Dr. Verrall should be in sympathy with those dull and unimaginative persons, the rationalists, who merely succeeded in making the fine old myths seem trivial, and should suppose that a great poet would condescend to use their methods, and reduce the famous descent into Hades to a visit to a mine. But, given the mine, and suppose Hades abandoned as a conception that Euripides would not have tolerated here, we are still confronted with the hound of hell, Cerberus, who, as we all know, had been brought to the upper air by Heracles when he rescued Theseus. Cerberus is clearly mentioned, and it would be hard, indeed, to drag him into the mine episode. Dr. Verrall has the courage of his conviction, and interprets Heracles as saying to Theseus that "there is a miserable dog" which he had bargained to convey to Argos. Dr. Verrall reminds us that Euripides was tender to animals, and admires the care for dumb creatures which makes Heracles remember this neglected pet. So much, then, for the hound of hell. Why anything so irrelevant and unexplained as this wretched dog should be dragged in, Dr. Verrall declines to say. It is characteristic of his method that he leaves us with more difficulties than before. This is natural. You cannot import a quantity of fresh interpretation into a drama without stultifying what was already plain to see. And nothing to the unsophisticated reader could be plainer than the references to the descent into Hades, the rescue of Theseus, and the rape of Cerberus. One other fence there was to be leaped, and Dr. Verrall takes it with ease. Madness herself personified, Lyssa, sent by the implacable Hera, appears in the play above the house of Heracles, and is bidden by Iris to inflame him with the murderous frenzy in which he is to slay his children. Lyssa accepts the task, and describes the first signs of the hero's seizure before she enters. This is all against the theory that Heracles was "curst from his birth with a taint in his blood, a recurrent and progressive malady of the brain." So Dr. Verrall explains that, when the audience saw those supernatural appearances above the house and heard those words, they were to imagine that it was all a dream, a sickly dream of the chorus of old men who have fallen asleep at this crisis as they lie on the house steps.

The "Orestes," "A Fire from Hell," to quote the last of Dr. Verrall's sensational subtitles, was a favorite play with the Greeks, partly, no doubt, because it indulged that liking for melodrama which is the amiable weakness of most theatre-goers. Dr. Verrall thinks that, like the "Helen," it was written for private performance, with no chorus, that being added afterwards in view of the Dionysia. In the domestic version the play ended, as a melodrama should, with Orestes, Pylades, Electra, and Hermione burning alive in Agamemnon's

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palace, where, a few minutes earlier, Helen has been murdered by Orestes. Not so could it end in the public theatre, where there was no curtain and the actors must walk off, while the audience, who knew well the later careers of the characters in Greek legend, would hardly accept the holocaust as convincing. Therefore, we are told, Euripides tacked on to the revised play the scene in which Apollo intervenes as the god from the machine, to bid Orestes marry, not murder, Hermione, and bestow the hand of Electra on Pylades, an unfortunate youth, if we follow Dr. Verrall in his description of the daughter of Agamemnon as a "fiend," a "demon," a "tragic cat, with the hideous malice of an old maid." While eliminating Apollo, Dr. Verrall tries to convince the reader that all the references to the oracle of Apollo as having bidden Orestes murder his mother are meant by Euripides to be taken as sneers at the theory which the sensible Argives described in the play would not have admitted for a moment. This is part of his effort to prove that Euripides avoided the introduction of the supernatural, discredited it when he could, and, in almost every case where gods are introduced, compels us to "suppose them unreal."

What vitiates these essays is the strong element of the fantastic, the evident yielding to caprice, which, on almost every page, pulls up the reader who is trying seriously to follow the course of the reasoning. A glaring case of this is in the essay on the "Helen," on page 121, where Dr. Verrall reduces the scene to mere farce by representing the chorus as eagerly watching for some hint that they will be invited to the banquet in the house of the apothecary's daughter, and ruefully uttering the familiar tag, "Many a shape hath fate, and many a surprise the gods decree, . . . and so hath this action ended," to express their private disappointment when the chief actors have passed into the house, leaving them to their usual tasks. If all this be true, then we must more than ever conclude that when Euripides wrote tragedy, his genius, as Jebb said, "was at discord with the form in which he worked."

LUCAS'S LAMB.

The Life of Charles Lamb. By E. V. Lucas. In two volumes, with fifty illustrations. Vol. I., 1775-1817; Vol. II., 1818-1834. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

Eleven hundred pages of biography and biographical appendix make a substantial postscript to Mr. Lucas's five generous volumes of the 'Works' and two of the 'Letters' of Charles and Mary Lamb. Having in these seven prior volumes industriously helped Elia and his sister to tell the story of their lives and thoughts after their own fashion—that is, for the most part imaginatively—and having in the process gained an exceptional familiarity with the immediate circumstances under which they were inspired to write, their most competent editor now causes them and their acquaintances to tell a similar story in *his* way—so to speak, scientifically. This chronicle of Lamb and his friends, the last that we are likely to have for some time, is a vast congeries of quotations, superficially disordered, since they flow from every source and form a bewildering panorama of styles, yet all grouped round one central figure, and all promoting a sequence in time, the rigor of which grows manifest as the years of Lamb's life unfold. The quotations draw largely, of course, from Elia himself, owing to Lamb's "inveterate habit of autobiography"; yet they come also from Coleridge and the Lloyds, from the Wordsworths and Southey, from Hazlitt, Haydon, and De Quincey, from Talfourd and Crabb Robinson—in fact, from every one whose orbit touched the circle of Lamb's activity and who has left for Mr. Lucas any significant record of the contact. To be sure, with the exception of hitherto inaccessible entries from the MS. diary of Crabb Robinson, comparatively little of this material is new; parts of it, as the amusing sketch of George Dyer, are incorporated with little or no change from Mr. Lucas's own previous publications. Nor does the new, comprehensive aggregation of materials, mostly old, bring with it any essential change in our traditional conception of the Lambs—in "the dear memory of a frail good Man" or the equally dear memory of his sister, "the self-restraining, and the ever kind"; unless perhaps there is still some reader who needs to be assured that not Charles Lamb's solicitude for his sister, but the gentle mitten of Fanny Kelly, was the cause of his continuing a lifelong bachelor. However, as its accuracy is well-nigh unimpeachable, so the epic amplitude of the work is impressive; no résumé could give a hint of its opulence in vivid, pathetic, and humorous detail.

The captious might, indeed, ask whether Mr. Lucas has not garnered with a hand too free and easy; whether, in Ben Jonson's phrase, he has not piled up excerpt and incident "with that facility that sometime it was necessary he should be stopped"; and, furthermore, whether in passing from one island to another of rare Elian prose he has not now and then slipped into tame, or even blind, transitions. If the substance of his final tribute to Lamb represents the investigation of years, the fusion of the parts, the mere technique of composition, seems in places to have been achieved with a rapidity scarcely Horatian. Zealous to surpass in thoroughness all extant biographies of Lamb, Mr. Lucas, trained journalist though he be, has not kept a steady eye upon the due retrenchment of his style and matter. His very first paragraph (vol. i., p. 1) illustrates his occasional prolixity, as well as a curious and useless precision which he displays throughout in giving the relative ages of persons whom he brings together for whatever purpose:

"In 1775, when Charles Lamb was born, Goldsmith had been dead a year, Gray and Smollett four years, Chatterton five, Sterne seven, Hogarth eleven, Richardson fourteen, Fielding twenty, Swift thirty, and Pope thirty-one. In the same year Dr. Johnson was sixty-six, Garrick fifty-nine, Horace Walpole fifty-eight, Reynolds fifty-two, Burke forty-five, Sheridan twenty-four, Crabbe twenty-one, William Blake eighteen, Burns sixteen, Bowles and Cobbett thirteen, Wordsworth five, Sir Walter Scott four, Coleridge three, and Southey one. Landor came into the world eleven days before Lamb, Jane Austen at the end of the same year."

This painfully graded list is ineffective not simply because of its length; its minuteness is annoying. Let us compare it with the opening of Mr. Morley's introduction to Wordsworth; here is a passage which with slight alteration might serve as beginning in a life of Lamb, and may very well serve as a model of style for his biographer:

"Most of the great lights of the eighteenth century were still burning, though burning low, when Wordsworth came into the world. Pope, indeed, had been dead for six and twenty years, and all the rest of the Queen Anne men had gone. But Gray only died in 1771, and Goldsmith in 1774. Ten years later Johnson's pious and manly heart ceased to beat. Voltaire and Rousseau, those two diverse oracles of their age, both died in 1778. Hume had passed away two years before. Cowper was forty years older than Wordsworth, but Cowper's most delightful work was not produced until 1783."

Of course it is hardly fair to set Mr. Lucas in an uninspired moment beside Mr. Morley at his best; yet one naturally expects something more than colorless prose, at all times, from a man who is weaving together an anthology of the happiest things ever said by and about Charles Lamb. Mr. Lucas writes in the long run with more light than warmth, his excuse being that he is "a stage-manager" who simply attends to the entrance and exit of his manifold speakers, and further, perhaps, that he is not trying to present his central figure as above all a man of literary bent. The chief lines, as he has conceived them, of the likeness he is executing in a sort of living mosaic, this biographer never permits himself to forget; for example (vol. ii., p. 60):

"The life of Charles Lamb, as these pages testify, is the narrative of one who was a man and brother first, an East India clerk next, and a writer afterwards. Hence, although from time to time we have had and shall have glimpses of some of the finest intellects of his day—the sixty years between February, 1775, and December, 1834—the story is that rather of a private individual who chanced to have literary genius than of a man of letters in the ordinary sense of the term. The work of Charles Lamb forms no integral part of the history of English literature; he is not in the main current, he is hardly in the side current of the great stream. As that noble river flows steadily onward it brims here and there into a clear and peaceful bay. Of such tributary backwaters, which are of the stream yet not in it, Sir Thomas Browne is one, Charles Lamb another."

The ring of a fine sincerity in this goes far toward justifying Mr. Lucas in his method of restoring the man and brother and the East India clerk to life, rather than the writer, and harmonizes well with his abundant success in a difficult attempt. The method of biography, in turn, necessarily relegates any systematic discussion of Lamb's reading to Mr. Lucas's appendices, in the third of which, "on the principle that the books a man likes are a sure index to his mind," we are offered "a list of a number of Lamb's favorite volumes." One is tempted to add: a careful history, not a mere list, of any cultivated man's reading is an index to the *growth* of his mind, to his spiritual biography, that no biographer can well afford to treat as of secondary importance.

After all, Lamb's place in literature is patently the reason why Mr. Lucas has read and produced literature about him, and his place in English literature the reason why scholarly men in this age, if not to a large extent during the latter part of Lamb's own, have taken interest in

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him, the reason why Mr. Macdonald, Canon Ainger, Mr. W. C. Hazlitt, and M. Derocquigny have studied him. Mr. Lucas emphasizes the individual note in 'Elia': "Our prose literature probably contains no work more steeped in personality." Does he consider the history of literature an impersonal thing? If even in the very first analysis it is impossible to dissociate the life and personality of Lamb, of the man and brother and clerk—and the reader—from their literary expression, in the last it is unsafe to regard him in any measure apart from that living stream of which he drank so copiously; that stream which, among the currents of European literature, has been distinguished by its individualism. Was Milton, for example, in the "great stream"? His "soul was like a star, and dwelt apart." Was Wordsworth, in Lamb's own time? According to Emerson, "Wordsworth's genius was the great exceptional fact in the literature of his period." Was De Quincey? The "Opium-Eater" has always been deemed *sui generis*. Now Lamb is not less an "integral part" of his national literature than either De Quincey or Wordsworth, both of whom became literary men neither more nor less accidentally than he. He has, however, as they, met many interpreters who, like Mr. Lucas, insist, upon looking at an individual case in and for itself, and who regard Lamb almost exclusively with reference to "the sixty years between February, 1775, and December, 1834"; whereas Elia declared with whimsical assurance that he "wrote for antiquity," herein suggesting, by an odd manœuvre of the comic spirit, that "he was *not* for an age." So far as English criticism is concerned, Elia has yet to be put in vital relation with "all time"; his literary biography—'Lamb and his Congeners,' we might style it—has not been duly recorded. In Germany a young Cornishman, Dr. Lake, working under academic stimulus, has at least commenced the sort of comparative study that we have in mind. His dissertation (Leipzig, 1903), which pays fruitful attention to the influence on Lamb of Burton's 'Anatomy of Melancholy,' is, in spite of its artlessness, a step in the right direction. In France M. Derocquigny has begun a more comprehensive examination in 'Charles Lamb, sa Vie et ses Œuvres,' a broad, genetic analysis, noticed some time since in these columns; this will not readily be superseded.

Mr. Lucas belongs very clearly with a school of expert literary investigators in his own land, who, within recent years, have rendered an essential service to the study of English by a narrow yet affecting personal attachment to various men of letters in the age of Wordsworth, and whose external reward is that their names are to be indissolubly linked with the objects of their devotion: Mr. Forman with Keats, Dykes Campbell with Coleridge, Mr. Hutchinson with Wordsworth, to give a few notable instances—and now Mr. Lucas with Lamb. Exactitude and completeness of an author's text and accuracy and fulness of knowledge concerning his outer life are, however, subsidiary ends, not the final goal of literary study. That final goal, we take it, is, so to speak, literary biology; it is the solution of a problem which, in Lamb's case, Mr. Lucas avoids by a tendency to deny its claim to existence—the problem of the direct connection between the life and work of each author, and the life and literature of his race. Whether the solution of narrower, preliminary questions, the hewing of wood and drawing of water, can be done to the best advantage by men who have not either for themselves or their successors that ultimate goal and ideal architecture continually in view, may seem an ungracious query to put in the presence of a work so high-minded and so fascinating as Lucas's 'Life of Charles Lamb'; yet in strict justice it is not wholly out of place.

LE ROY'S PHILIPPINE LIFE.

Philippine Life in Town and Country. By James A. Le Roy. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1905.

There is neither a Filipino people nor a Filipino tongue. Our unhappy Asiatic burden is in the main Malay, crossed in the north with Mongol and Hispanic strains. Alongside are less familiar barbaric tribes, the Igorrotes being a type. In the south we call Filipinos Moros, a metaphor for Mussulmans. These are unallied bands of the same stock in a different environment; and unvexed, certainly uncurbed, by Spanish rule, Ishmaels of the deep, they exercised the sea-power that was theirs and harried the less turbulent natives north of them much as the swooping vikings distressed the English coasts. In this discussion we pass by pagan and Mohammedan, important enough where administration is concerned, and confine ourselves, with the author, to the Christianized and linguistically dissociated tribes with whom commerce and the West are in commoner contact. Were our newly-acquired "colonists" Canadians or Australians, for example, they would not be so puzzling. We might disagree along lines of self-interest, but otherwise both parties would understand the object of government, and certainly would appreciate, however they might dislike, its methods. What is the prospect of the intellectual and moral absorption of a radically different tropical race? Is the Filipino ethos compatible with the American, or is the brown man essentially irreconcilable with the white?

Mr. Le Roy is content with describing conditions as he understands them, and maintains no dogmatic thesis about the islands or the islanders, or their masters past or present. This sinking of the speculative beneath the objective has peculiar value for readers with all shades of preconceptions, the more as almost, if not quite, without exception the observations are accurately made and always temperately expressed. Avoiding detailed history, our author lays stress on one historical fact, that the purpose of the various revolts against Spanish rule is evidence of the elevating influence of that rule. No other Orientals have attempted to break the conquerors' yoke with an avowed purpose of improving the government. The Spaniards made no pretence of civil liberty even for themselves, but by degrees they raised these Malays to a position whence they aspired to it. It was not their design, but both Spain and the Church builded better than they knew; and the people should be credited with a laudable yearning, however irregular their route and grotesque their immediate ideal.

Our real concern is with the people of to-day. These are divided into classes of property-holders rather than into proscriptive castes. The social barriers are industrial and political conditions, virtually more difficult to surmount than those of birth, so that the native aristocracy, an aristocracy of possession, are masters and not brothers. The elders of these are, naturally, conservative; from the younger come leaders, revolutionary and martial in war, radical in peace—radical not in the European sense, but as against the established order. The masses controlled by them, especially in the country, are in virtual peonage—a bonded indebtedness, not an inherited slavery, which is fostered by the extortionate obligations imposed through primitive forms. In time of scarcity a poor man borrows rice for his pressing needs. The landowner who advances it charges an interest in kind equal to 30 or 40 per cent., besides which repayment is required, not simply of the quantity borrowed and the usury, but of an amount in time of plentiful harvest equal in value then to that which had been transferred at a high price when the crop had failed. The obligation to serve off the debt, with its additions, is a strict social one, compulsory upon descendants as well. Native, one may say natural, improvidence, the universal proneness to gambling, and the very moderate requirements of the climate combine to discourage thrift and accumulation. "From them that have not shall be taken away"; so that the lower classes are kept low chiefly from material need.

Growing out of this state is the political and social condition of caciquism, a combination of the "boss" rule of the American machine and the leadership of a true landed aristocracy. Where in a tropical environment a dozen families out of ten thousand live in stone houses and have solid floors under them, and the others are sheltered in bamboo huts, borrowing from the former money, produce, or the use of land for cultivation, it may be understood that the few are the political agents and religious leaders, not teachers. With the friars as over-lords, these local directors were practically dictators and absolutely controlled their respective communities; and although the schoolhouse is replacing the *convento* as the active centre of influence, the *presidentes* and other magnates must for a long future be found among, and only among, the same class as before. There is every reason to suppose that this class as a class has not been, and now is not, desirous of increasing the political liberties of the masses, or of educating them towards assuming greater responsibilities. But the Civil Commission, while compelled to accept such leaders as really standing for if not representing the people, is establishing an alternative educational or property qualification for the protection of the franchise, and has made that barrier low and the way to overcome it easy.

The education offered by Spain was most meagre, and there is every reason to believe, although Mr. Le Roy does not directly express that opinion, that there was no intention of supplying the masses with a common language, especially with one that

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might open European literature. *Divide et impera* was a good working rule, and Tagálogs and Viscayans (Bisayans), Ilocans, and Bikals, all with numerous dialects, were encouraged to maintain their individual speech and to be content with little that passed for learning—certainly for practical learning—at all. An attempt at higher instruction was dominated and restrained by an ecclesiastical influence which, in Manila itself, had explained that "the natural sciences are materialistic and impious studies," and had denounced political economy as a "science of the devil." The course leading to the A.B. at the University of St. Thomas, royal and pontifical by charter and control, was so arranged in teaching and prolonged by vacations as to cover six or seven years (beginning, it is true, with mere boys), and to hinder, if not to preclude, the attendance of the poor. The Dominican spirit was clearly that of the Athenian, in Georgia, who (even after the war) thought it good public policy to require an education to cost $20,000. In this connection, the author seems to have overlooked the Nautical School, successfully maintained, we think under Jesuit auspices, during the Spanish régime, for he mentions it along with the Normal School and the School of Arts and Trades as "established," not reëstablished, "by the insular Government."

The position of the married woman, unique in the Orient, as the business head of the family, is referred to more than once as due to the Christianity which the Spaniards established wholesale *vi et armis*. It does not seem to be recognized as an imitation of the foreign rulers. These, bringing no families with them, acquired common-law native wives. The consideration for the alliance was the bestowal of the house upon the brown partner, with sufficient means to rear the family after the departure of the white man. The real estate was hers. With the lapse of generations other brown women with higher moral claims came, by force of example, into similar responsibilities. It became the custom of the country. The reverse of the shield is the frequent, by no means universal, acceptance of a relaxed code of personal conduct for the weaker, if not the fairer, sex. Some of us are too apt to confer upon our little friends virtues they hardly possess and to ignore qualities they surely exhibit. Repulsive and abundant barbarity has been incontestably proved before formal courts, displayed against hostile clansmen more frequently than against the invading whites, to show how thin is the veneer upon the essential savage. Especially under the encouragement of numbers; the insurrectos displayed courage and endurance; at the same time Government-employed Macabebe scouts, hereditary enemies of the Tagálogs, would sit down and weep when hard marching followed short rations or none. Reversing the circumstances, the conditions doubtless would have shifted correspondingly. The apparent heartlessness at and after native funerals has often been commented upon (although in other lands an Irish wake is not unknown); and yet in the height of the hostilities a Filipino lower-class woman has been known to cast her tribute in the open grave of an American soldier, in avowed sympathy with his distant and unknown mother. The human nature that makes the whole world kin is theirs as well as ours, and there are also quirks and eccentricities in their make-up that we might blush to own.

We can follow in no further detail the problem, important as it is, or the volume full of interest as every one will find it. The book is packed with impartial information about the people we have adopted by force and are governing with difficulty, through their and our own limitations. There is no true public spirit in the archipelago, but, like the cave of Æolus, the islands are filled with winds of oratory, more destructive than beneficent. It is impossible for this people, even more ignorant of politics than of literature, to stand alone, and we must supply crutches if not wings. Ladronism will be insurrection whenever wholesome restraint is lessened. Whoever wants trustworthy intelligence, untainted by visible prejudice and clearly presented at first hand, may keep this account of our unwilling wards within his easy reach. It is a well-arranged thesaurus of facts. We lay down with regret this story of the fierce yet humble, the weak but aspiring, the individually insignificant but numerically important Filipino, commending it to students of public affairs and to intelligent citizens at large. Trade, education, and religion find their place in it, as well as the matters we have touched upon. And because we have taken it up, the lure of the East revives. The crowded traffic over the stately Bridge of Spain, the light-crowned processions in the balmy night, the picturesque avenues of the fire-trees and the heavy perfume of the ylang-ylang, the palm-girdled drive of the Malecon, the open-air concerts on the Luneta—site of execution as well as of fashionable concourse—the gorgeous sunsets over Merivales as the lost day passes across the China Sea, come back with all their charm, and one forgets the vileness of man when so nearly every prospect pleases.

The Political History of England. By W. Hunt and R. L. Poole. Vol. I. From the Earliest Times to the Norman Conquest. By T. Hodgkin. Vol. II., by G. B. Adams. Vol. III., by T. F. Tout. Longmans, Green & Co. 1906.

Further instalments of 'The Political History of England' demonstrate the ability of the editors. The wonderfully firm and scholarly handling that has won for Mr. Poole a well-deserved reputation as editor of the *English Historical Review*, is clearly to be traced here, and the History already shows that it is to be well compacted, homogeneous and of uniform quality. In this respect the editors will undoubtedly be able to challenge comparison with Lavisse and Rambaud; more could not be said.

Mr. Hodgkin's contribution to the above series has been looked forward to with some curiosity; it may be said at once that it is likely neither to increase nor to detract from the author's previous reputation. The work is decidedly uneven. As might have been expected, the author shows a full knowledge in matters pertaining to Roman Britain; and such passages as the chapter on the coin-kings display (in addition to a fondness for Teutonic hyphenated forms) an erudition in numismatics that is often of the highest interest and value. But when we reach the Anglo-Saxons, and especially their institutions, Mr. Hodgkin perceptibly lowers his standard; he is now content, and frankly tells us so, to follow the judgment of those who have made that field their special province. The result is, as a whole, a narrative that reads well and is generally safe to follow, but with occasional passages that are not satisfactory.

Thus, at page 77, where he discusses the question of Saxon land tenures, the arguments of Seebohm are balanced and adopted against those of Freeman and Kemble, but with no mention of Vinogradoff or Maitland. A striking example of the author's lack of independent knowledge and criticism in this period is his account of the battle of Hastings. This event, one of the most dramatic and important in English history, and the one with which this volume closes, afforded him a splendid opportunity for a fitting climax. But the climax, such as it is, is merely rhetorical, and the interest of the intelligent reader is entirely forfeited by the obvious lack of grasp on the facts and details of the business in hand. Thus, for the death of Harold, the old story is repeated that William ordered his archers "to shoot high up into the sky so that their arrows might fall from on high on some unshielded part of their enemies' persons." The absurdity of this ought to strike the least critical of historians. The nature of the case, confirmed by the Bayeux tapestry's representation of Harold trying to tug the arrow from his eye, suggests clearly that what William did was to order his archers to shoot higher up the hill over the heads of the front Saxon ranks, on which they were probably making little impression, at the conspicuous mark offered by Harold and his housecarls. In the same way the flight stratagem, which Mr. Hodgkin adopts without discussion, is one of the most unusual, difficult, and dangerous employed in war; the fact that we are informed that it was several times repeated might have aroused the author's suspicions. This statement suggests very strongly that what happened was merely that the Norman footmen were several times beaten back and pursued, and that on each occasion the pursuing Saxons were caught at the foot of the hill and in turn driven back by a counterstroke of the Norman horse. The stratagem might well be the embellishment of a scribe anxious to maintain Norman prestige. The account of the battle is as confused and unconvincing as it was possible to make it, and it is not unfair to say of Mr. Hodgkin, as Mommsen said of Tacitus: "A worse narrative. . . . concerning this war is hardly to be found even in this most unmilitary of authors."

All deductions made, however, the volume is well written and up to the standard of the series.

Professor Adams's volume is characteristic of the writer. He covers the period from the conquest of England by William of Normandy to the granting of Magna Carta and the death of John. Within these limits he shows more acquaintance with the chroniclers than with the records, he is stronger in political narrative than in institutional knowledge. In the latter respect, although never very far from the mark, Professor Adams is too apt to generalize

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on insufficient grounds. Where profound students of institutions like Maitland or Vinogradoff advance only in the most guarded manner, he does not hesitate to go beyond their utmost bounds. This habit of superficial generalization is the great drawback to Professor Adams's work, and becomes at times quite irritating to the careful reader. A typical example of it occurs at page 23, where, referring to the effect of the Conquest on England, he writes: ". . . in the main, as concerned the great mass of facts, there was no change of importance." Ten lines further on we find: "It is because we can see the results of the changes which it really introduced that we are able to estimate their profound significance." Perhaps the most curious example is that to be found at page 186, where we are presented with a novel and amusing computation of the space of time implied by the word "generation."

Among the very few slips noticed is one at page 68, where, in dealing with the Domesday Survey, we are told that the *missi* were to ascertain the number of hides each manor contained; this should be at what number of hides they were rated, which was quite a different thing. At page 152 the footnote is apparently mistaken; the reference is probably intended for Professor Haskins's article on the Norman Jury. All deductions made, this volume has many good points and will probably come up to the average of the series. The style, however, is far from vigorous, and is not unfrequently disfigured by such passages as the two following: "This would have been sufficient under a King like the first two Williams"; "William was determined to be strong, not because of any theory which he had formed of the value of strength, or of the way to secure it, but because he was strong and had always been so."

Professor Tout's volume begins at the accession of Henry III., and brings us down to the death of Edward III.; it is excellent in every respect. The style is direct, the scholarship sound, the judgment sane. As an example of balanced and clear statement the relations of Edward I., Bruce and Balliol may be cited, and the chapter on authorities is admirable. The treatment of military questions is especially good, though the novel description of the Black Prince's victory at Poitiers may well arouse question. Favorable mention must also be made of the treatment of questions connected with the Welsh marches and of the particularly valuable maps. Professor Tout, whose bias against the chroniclers appears strongly, will have no dealings with such tales as those of the six burghers of Calais and the incident marking the creation of the Order of the Garter that were current as history in our childhood.

There is perhaps more serious cause to quarrel with him for his apparent neglect of the influence of the Jews in the beginning of the thirteenth century. Again, the one incidental reference to Richard de Bury appears inadequate for a writer ranked by some as the English counterpart of Petrarch. One more small point that may be raised is the passing over of the fact that before 1231 the University of Cambridge was attracting large numbers of students from abroad, as is witnessed by a royal writ of that year quoted in Cooper's 'Annals.' On the whole, Professor Tout may be congratulated on an excellent and readable volume.

Studies in Architecture. By Reginald Blomfield. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

This book of studies is unusual in some respects, for it is a collection of detached essays written by an architect in very active practice. According to the books of reference, he is not more than fifty years old, and yet the well-known buildings which he has designed and superintended form a very long list. His 'History of Renaissance Architecture in England,' published in 1897, gives evidence of a careful noting down of experiences and special observation, and skill in weaving these together into a narrative. One approaches the new book, then, with a sense of respect and also of expectation conducive to a careful examination of what the author has wished to say. Some of the papers are the general essays of such an active and observing man, written without the need of much investigation, and giving general impressions rather than separate pieces of investigation. Such a paper is that on Andrea Palladio, to which thirty-three pages are devoted; such an one is the much longer article on Philibert de l'Orme; for in these there is, perhaps, no array of facts and dates more than can be obtained from books that are under the hand of any active student, and the general conclusions of such a student form the one theme of the essay. On the other hand, the article on the architect and the architecture of Newgate, with its considerations of the extraordinary building itself, rebuilt by George Dance the younger, who is always said to be the architect, is devoted to a subject which involves considerable original thought and some investigation, and the argument takes up with sufficient cause and without undue repetition the old question as to "paper designers" and practical workmen in architecture.

The paper entitled "Byzantium or Lombardy" contains in itself many of the characteristics of the whole book. It is devoted to an examination of Signor Rivoira's Italian treatise, published in 1901, 'Le Origini della Architettura Lombarda,' a quarto very richly illustrated with half-tone cuts of excellent quality inserted in the text, and having also a very few plates in phototype. That book was an almost avowed plea for the independence of Italian design, and formed a detailed argument against the theory that all that is good in the early Italian Romanesque came from the Byzantine Greeks. As a study more patriotic than critical, and as presenting a vast number of interesting analyses of existing monuments, this work was of importance, and yet the student can hardly avoid sympathizing with the counter-plea set up by Mr. Blomfield. Indeed, the immense importance to mediæval Europe of the influence coming from the Eastern Empire is only in part recognized as yet, and Mr. Blomfield's paper may be thought to exercise a useful influence in spreading a knowledge of that most important fact in art history. The paper, too, is full of minor points extremely well met. Thus, the remarks upon the preposterous book by "Leader Scott," which has been reviewed in these columns—the book which laid before the English reader an Italian theory about an imaginary company of masters of the art of building, whose headquarters were taken to have been at Como in Lombardy, is entirely welcome, for such a darkening of counsel should not be allowed to pass out of mind lest students of a new generation should take up that book, 'The Cathedral Builders,' and be led astray by it. In like manner, the discussion of the mediæval clumsiness seen in the Italian taking over of the Byzantine cupola and its supports is perfectly just and is well worked out. Many such points made in the essay might be dwelt upon and praised. James Fergusson's unlucky remark about a "fluke" in the designing of Newgate leads to several deprecatory remarks about that ill-informed and injudicious historian, and here is a delicious bit of criticism for one artist and writer whose work is accepted in a most uncritical way by the majority of recent English writers on art: "William Morris used to say that architecture must start again at the beginning; a remark of far-reaching sagacity, in singular contrast to his own practice in ornament."

There are odd bits of testimony to a certain haste in writing down the propositions and the conclusions of the article "Byzantium or Lombardy." Here is, for instance, that most curious and precious monument of antiquity which is called by Murray's and by Joanne's guidebooks S. Giovanni in Fonte, and which Baedeker and Gsellfels agree in calling by the same name and with the additional title (very familiar in Ravenna, as every traveller will say) "Baptistery of the Catholics" (*Battistero degli Ortodossi*). Three of these four writers speak of "Archbishop Neo" or "Archbishop Neon," but they speak of him only in passing. Now, this important building, a "real document," if there ever was one, is spoken of by Mr. Blomfield as the Baptistery of Neone (exactly as if "Neone" were an Italian town), and while one may look in vain through the article, seeking to discover what building is referred to, he may also look through a score of recent books of reference hopelessly if he searches for "Neone" as the name of either a man or a locality. This seems, in short, to be a hasty transference of the descriptive title "battistero di Neone" from Mr. Rivoira's book, which is printed in Italian, and which uses that descriptive epithet many times, and gives it in the index. A similar hasty remark is that which is repeated many times, about Imperial Roman building with "concrete." Now although this is a common phrase, it is so inaccurate that a first-rate practical architect should have avoided it. The great walls and vaults of the period, beginning with Hadrian, were not built with concrete, but with rubble stone in an abundance of strong mortar used in a very liquid condition. The stones are laid as bricks are laid upon a wall, one by one, and in courses, though unevenly.

It remains to be said that there are, in Mr. Blomfield's book, a number of very good half-tone plates, of which the seven devoted to Old Newgate will be most unexpected, and the most welcome to the already well-furnished student, while the two or three interiors of Venice churches by Palladio are the most attractive. We have all denounced Palladio so

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strongly for his indifference to construction and his activity in pushing on the decadence of architecture, that the real charm of his designs is almost forgotten among men; but the interior of the Redentore—the church upon the Giudecca—should be enough to set us right in that matter.

Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty: A Statistical Study in History and Psychology. By Frederick Adams Woods, M.D. Henry Holt & Co. 1906.

Recent applications of mathematical analysis to biology have vastly extended the practical domain of that science. Ten years ago the more complex subjects called by courtesy biological were scarcely sciences at all in any exact sense of the word. Now the statistical method has placed anthropology on a firm foundation, and bids fair to organize psychology and even history into systems of definitely observed and rationally correlated phenomena.

An important impetus must be given to this movement by Mr. Woods's study, which is an exhaustive analysis of the characteristics of the members of the reigning families in Europe from the sixteenth century (in some cases from the tenth century) downward, in the light of present theories of heredity. The choice of material is singularly fortunate, and the method of treatment as far as possible fair and impersonal; estimates of character being founded solely on the consensus of a series of histories and genealogies chosen before the beginning of the investigation.

The first part of the book, which will prove of most interest to the general reader, traces the individual history of the various royal houses in detail; and the peculiarities are in several cases as characteristic as if they had been prearranged for a laboratory experiment. The house of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha exhibits the combination of high-minded virtue with a genial and cultivated intellect, and all through the lines of descent these characters are manifest. Dr. Woods says: "No royal family has been able to maintain itself without degeneration unless it has taken a good share of Saxe-Coburg blood." Contrast with this the line of the early Romanoffs in Russia, where, surrounding Peter the Great upon the genealogical chart, appears a startling group of degenerates sharing the same violence and epilepsy which marred his mental power. At the very summit for intellectual ability stand the houses of Nassau-Orange and the first Hohenzollerns; a group of interrelated geniuses began with the mingling of the bloods of Condé, Montmorency, Coligny, and William of Orange, which in five generations produced Elizabeth of Palatine, Sophia of Brunswick, the Great Elector and William III. of England, culminating in Frederick the Great of Prussia, his brilliant brother and sisters, and his nephew, Gustavus III. of Sweden. In Spain, for twenty-one successive generations from Sancho II. in the tenth century to Charles V. in the sixteenth, there were only five monarchs "who did not possess a high degree of strength and ability." All this time only good stock was introduced in the female line; and, as among the Hohenzollerns, quite close inbreeding produced no bad results. When, however, insanity was somehow brought in, appearing first distinctly in Isabella, the Queen of John II. of Castile, inbreeding intensified it to a fearful degree. The Hapsburg insanity and the Hapsburg lip appeared generation after generation, in the horrible procession with which Rostand appalls the Duke of Reichstadt.

In each family the character of the individual may in almost every case be accounted for by the simple influence of heredity. Alternative inheritance, by which a character in the ancestry is inherited by each child either in full force or not at all, is generally manifest. In large families, the law of ancestral heredity appears by which one-quarter of the children resemble each parent, one-eighth each grandparent, and so on. The biological law of regression by which children of exceptional parents tend to approach again to the mean of the race, is manifest. Inbreeding is bad only when the characters bred are in themselves pathological. There appears no general tendency to degeneration due to the ease and luxury of court existence; on the whole, it seems that a related group of 800 persons in which among the men alone there are twenty-five who must be classed as geniuses, stands far above the average. "The royal breed, considered as a unit, is superior to any other one family, be it that of noble or commoner."

The last chapters of the book bring out various points in more exact mathematical fashion. Dr. Woods divides his 832 individuals into ten grades for mental, and ten grades for moral, qualities, and shows that the correlation in grade with parents, grandparents, and great-grandparents is very close to that theoretically postulated by Galton and determined for various physical characters in other investigations. Apparently, hereditary tendencies alone are as sufficient to account for intellect and character as for the coat color of the classic Basset hounds. Even a mathematical comparison of those persons who inherited the succession with their less fortunate relations fails to show any appreciable influence of environment. Dr. Woods finds a very striking correlation between mental and moral traits, about as high as that which exists between a man's strength of pull and his weight. He also observes a distinct correlation between moral character and the number of children reaching adult life. Thus the prospect of general progress for the race seems fair. "We have found among royal families the morally superior surviving, and in the inheritance of mental and moral excellence we see ground for a belief in the necessary progress of mankind." On the other hand, "it is true that on this view we can do but little for the individual once born into the world."

There can be no doubt that the weight of current biological evidence tends strongly toward the preponderating influence of heredity. Nevertheless, there is a mass of credible testimony from various classes of social workers as to the practical results of environment, and most men can testify from their own inner experience to the impact of external influences which have profoundly modified their natures. The struggle between these two points of view is really a phase of the old problem of Predestination and Free Will which has passed from the church into the laboratory. The apparent conflict follows, perhaps, from the fact that the hereditary process, although mechanical, is so complex. Acting on a brain containing many and various ancestral potencies, the selective action of the environment may easily draw out one or the other in such a way as to alter at least the outward significance of a life in the profoundest manner. Whatever one may think of these problems, Dr. Woods's book is a solid and valuable contribution toward their solution. To the biologist, it fills an important place in the development of the theory of heredity. The historian who is wise enough to read the signs of his own as well as of other times, may ponder radical modifications of traditional points of view in the light of such promising scientific methods. All who are working for social progress must weigh the evidence it presents upon the ultimate aim of humanitarian effort, the improvement of the living stuff that men are made of.

Excavations at Nippur. (Part I.: Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania.) Plans, details, and photographs of the buildings, with numerous objects found in them during the excavations of 1889, 1890, 1893-1896, 1899-1900, with descriptive text by Clarence S. Fisher. Philadelphia. 1905.

Mr. Clarence S. Fisher, architect of the last expedition to Nippur of the University of Pennsylvania, has begun the publication of a work entitled as above. Beyond the words, "Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania," there is nothing to indicate that this is an official publication of the University. As no publisher is named, it would appear that it is published by Mr. Fisher at his own risk, and copies are to be ordered from him at Rutledge, Delaware County, Pa.

The first part, which is all that has so far appeared, contains sixteen pages of text (11x16 in.), with two cuts and sixteen plates, partly plans and drawings and partly photographic reproductions. By these means Mr. Fisher throws welcome light on some perplexing points. In his 'Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania,' the only account of the later excavations heretofore accessible, Hilprecht published an ancient map of Nippur, which, he asserted, was part of a small archæological collection made by a late Babylonian priest and found by himself in a vase on the "library hill." No explanation of the map was given; it was, in fact, published sidewise, and thus rendered quite unintelligible. Fisher states that the map was not found in a vase with other objects, nor even on "library hill," and was discovered months before Hilprecht reached Nippur. He has analyzed the map, which is fortunately provided with descriptive text, turned it right side up, and, by a comparison of the map and the excavations, restored the topography of the ancient city at a period about or a little before 3000 B.C. This is the earliest topographical map ever found. It is much to be regretted that the Director of the expedition, an Assyriologist, did not perceive its character while the expedition was still in the field, for it would have been an invaluable guide in the conduct of the excavations.

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In his account of the excavations of the temple of Bel at Nippur contained in the book above referred to, Professor Hilprecht reported that evidences of occupation were found not only beneath the present plain level, but even below virgin soil down to water level. These earliest remains consisted of layers of ashes with fragments of pottery. From this he argued that the temple of Nippur was originally connected with the burning of the dead. But this theory did not account for the fact that excavations conducted to an equal depth in the parts of the Nippur mount farthest removed from the temple showed exactly the same conditions. Moreover, his account left us with a huge hole in the ground, below plain level and virgin soil, and no explanation of its meaning and origin. Fisher has given an entirely intelligible and reasonable explanation of these conditions. At the outset, when the marshes of the Euphrates delta were just emerging from the sea, the settlers were a rude population, living in reed and mat huts, similar to those occupied by the degenerate natives of those regions to-day. As now, so then, these villages were subject to frequent and disastrous conflagrations, of which the layers of ashes are the remnant and the proof. Gradually the land emerged from the marshes, by deposits of soil through inundations and by accumulation of débris. Out of one of these rude villages developed the town of Nippur, and out of the primitive sacred place of that village the temple of Bel. This temple grew *pari passu* with the growth in civilization of the town. By Fisher's plates we are able to follow the growth of this sacred place and temple upwards in a literal sense as it came to be raised on a terrace or platform, and then finally to be furnished with the *ziggurat* or artificial mountain. At the same time that it grew upward it expanded outward, occupying more and more space, until by the time of Sargon, circa 3000 B. C., the temple area was many times larger than the whole of the original walled town.

In tracing this development in its intermediate stages, effective use is made of the ancient map mentioned above, according to which Nippur was situated on the River Euphrates, and intersected and almost surrounded by canals, including a moat. Mr. Fisher certainly deserves great credit for the manner in which he has exhibited the topographical and culture development of Nippur and its temple. In this regard his work constitutes an important contribution to Babylonian archæology, and scholars will await with interest the publication of the remaining five parts, in which, it is to be hoped, more care will be bestowed on the proof-reading of the descriptive text.

The Spirit of Rome: Leaves from a Diary. By Vernon Lee. John Lane Co. 1906.

This book of impressions does not adequately fulfil the promise of its title or the expectations raised by the name of its author. In an explanatory apologetic preface, Vernon Lee tells of her childhood spent in Rome, of frequent subsequent visits confirming her conviction that Rome itself is too predominant and alive to allow of any distinct individual experiences being worked up in remembrance of its identity, as is the case with other cities; and for this very reason she has not attempted a portrait of Rome, but has left her notes untouched as a record rather of what Rome has said to her. These entries in her diary during the years from 1888 to 1905 read like hasty memoranda, jotted down carelessly at the end of a tiring day of sightseeing. Many of them are too fragmentary and personal to convey to the general reader any clear idea of what they mean, but here and there he will, if gifted with patience, come across vivid descriptions of the country and of events in that picturesque, impressionist manner which is natural to Vernon Lee even when, as in this book, she is as it were in her dressing-gown; for with her keen insight and freshness of vision she generally strikes a point of view utterly unconventional. In all the excursions to distant villas, bicycle rides to remote parts of the Campagna, religious functions, and wanderings in Roman gardens and among the ruins, we get the prevailing idea of immensity of scale and grandeur of line pervading everything—the feeling Piranesi has so effectively given in his exaggerated representations of Roman monuments, which Vernon Lee considers so truly representative of the very spirit of the place in things material. We quote from her note on the English Cemetery:

"I was right, I think, when I wrote the other day that it would be easier for us to face the thought of danger, death, change, here in Rome than elsewhere. To die here might seem, one would think, more like reentering into the world's outer existence, returning, as Epictetus has it, *where one is wanted.* The cypresses of the graveyard there under the city walls among the ruins do not seem to unite folk with the terrible unity Death, so much as with the everlasting life of the centuries."

It is a pity the book has been given to the public without eliminating all that is purposeless and inadequate—the brief mention of villas and galleries and the references to persons by initial. These futilities disturb the equanimity of the reader, and will prevent many from bestowing more than a cursory glance on its pages.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Book of Angels. Longmans. $1.80 net.
Alexander, Eleanor. The Lady of the Well. Longmans. $1.50.
Alexander, J. H. Elementary Electrical Engineering. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2 net.
Andrews, Mary Raymond Shipman. Bob and the Guides. Scribners. $1.50.
A Practical Programme for Workingmen. Imported by Scribners. $1.
Baldwin, James. The Golden Fleece. American Book Co.
Beach, Rex E. The Spoilers. Harpers. $1.50.
Bond, Francis. Gothic Architecture in England. Imported by Scribners. $12 net.
Brassey, Lord. Sixty Years of Progress; and The New Fiscal Policy. Longmans. $1.25 net.
Breare, W. H. Elocution. Putnams. $1 net.
Breasted, James Henry. Ancient Records of Egypt. Vol. II. The University of Chicago Press. $3 net.
Brooks, Stratton D., and Marietta Hubbard. Composition-Rhetoric. American Book Co.
Buell, Augustus C. Paul Jones. 2 vols. Scribners.
Bullene, Emma F. Jay. The Psychic History of the Cliff-Dwellers. Denver: The Reed Publishing Co.
Bullock, Charles J. Selected Readings in Public Finance. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.25.
Burton, Richard. Rahab. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25 net.
Carroll, Lewis. Through the Looking-Glass.—Alice's Adventures in Wonderland.—The Hunting of the Snark. Harpers. 60 cents each.
Carver, Thomas Nixon. Sociology and Social Progress. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.75.
Castle, Agnes and Egerton. "If Youth But Knew!" Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Cox, David, Drawings of. Imported by Scribners. $2.50 net.
Dante's Divina Commedia. Milan: Hoepli.
De Flagello Myrteo. London: Elkin Mathews.
Dougherty, J. Hampden. The Electrical System of the United States. Putnams. $2 net.
D'Ovidio, Francesco. Nuovi Studii Danteschi. Milan: Hoepli.
Egan, Maurice Francis. The Ghost in Hamlet, and Other Essays. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Besant, Walter. Mediæval London. Vol. I. Macmillan Co.
Farrer, Reginald J. The House of Shadows. Longmans.
Fechner, Gustav Theodor. On Life after Death. Translated by Hugo Wernekke. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.
Fisher, George Park. The Reformation. New ed. Scribners. $2.50 net.
Fitz, R. K. and G. W. Problems of Babyhood. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25 net.
Flammarion, Camille. Thunder and Lightning. Translated by Walter Mostyn. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.25 net.
Fra Angelico. Newnes's Art Library. Frederick F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Franklin, Benjamin, The Writings of. Edited by Albert H. Smyth. Vol. V. Macmillan Co. $3 net.
Frantz, Henri. French Pottery and Porcelain. Imported by Scribners. $2.50 net.
Freer, William B. The Philippine Experiences of an American Teacher. Scribners. $1.50 net.
Frost, Thomas Gold. A Treatise on the Incorporation and Organization of Corporations. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.75 net.
Galton, Francis, and Others. Sociological Papers. Vol. II. Macmillan Co. $3.
Gawatkin, Henry Melvill. The Eye for Spiritual Things. Imported by Scribners. $1.50 net.
Gilliat-Smith, Ernest. The Story of Brussels. Macmillan Co. $2.
Green, Anna Katharine. The Circular Study. R. F. Fenno & Co. 50 cents.
Guerber, H. A. How to Prepare for Europe. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2 net.
Hardy, E. G. Studies in Roman History. Macmillan Co. $1.60.
Harraden, Beatrice. The Scholar's Daughter. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Harry, Myriam. The Conquest of Jerusalem. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co.
Harvey, Alexander. The Model Village and its Cottages: Bournville. Imported by Scribners. $3.50 net.
Heape, Walter. The Breeding Industry. Macmillan Co. 75 cents.
Hénin, B. L. Méthode Hénin. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50 cents.
Hewlett, Maurice, The Works of. Vol. VI.; The Road in Tuscany. Macmillan. $3.
Hill, Constance. The Story of the Princess des Ursins in Spain. John Lane Co.
Hill, George William, The Collected Mathematical Works of. Vol. III. Washington: Carnegie Institute.
Hodgson, Geraldine. Primitive Christian Education. Imported by Scribners. $1.50 net.
Holder, Charles Frederick. Life in the Open. Putnams. $3.50 net.
Huntington, William Reed. A Good Shepherd, and Other Sermons. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25 net.
Hunt, Theodore W. Literature: Its Principles and Problems. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.20 net.
Hutton, Richard Holt. Brief Literary Criticisms. Macmillan Co.
Hyslop, James H. Enigmas of Psychical Research. Boston: H. B. Turner & Co. $1.50 net.
Jewish Encyclopedia. Vol. XII. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
Johnson, Joseph French. Money and Currency. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.75.
Johnson, Rossiter. The Story of the Constitution of the United States. William Ritchie. $1 net.
Labiche et Martin's La Poudre aux Yeux. Edited by Victor E. François. American Book Co.
Lamb's Essays of Elia. Edited by George A. Wauchope. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40 cents.
Lancaster, G. B. The Spur of the Bondage of Kin Severne. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Lee, J. Henry. Genealogical Research in England and Ireland. Printed for the Author.
Leigh, J. E. Austen. A Memoir of Jane Austen. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Lewis, Alfred Henry. The Throwback. The Outing Publishing Co. $1.50.
Lillie, Lucy C. Phil and the Baby.—False Witnesses. Harpers. 60 cents each.
Lincoln, Charles Z. The Constitutional History of New York. 5 vols. Rochester: Lawyer's Co-operative Publishing Co. $15.
Lipsett, Ella Partridge. A Summer in the Apple-Tree Inn. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Lloyd, Nelson. Six Stars. Scribners. $1.50.
Lorimer, George Horace. The False Gods. Appleton. $1.25.
Lyman, Henry M. Hawaiian Yesterdays. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Lynch, Lawrence L. The Doverfields' Diamonds. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Lysias: Selected Speeches. Edited by Charles D. Adams. American Book Co.
Macfall, Haldane. Whistler. Boston: John W. Luce & Co. 75 cents net.
Macquoid, Percy. A History of English Furniture. Vol. II., Parts IX. and X. Putnams.
Maillard, Thomas F. The New Far East. Scribners. $1.50 net.
Martinez, Albert B., and Maurice Lewandowski. L'Argentine au XXe siècle. Paris: Armand Colin.
McClure, A. K. Old-Time Notes of Pennsylvania. 2 vols. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. $10.
McCutcheon, George Barr. Cowardice Court. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
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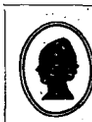

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